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SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN ONTARIO.

BY J. GEORGE HODGINS, LL. D.,

Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction in Ontario, Canada; read before the Detroit Meeting of the National Association, Aug. 5, 1874.

The subject which I indicated to you, Sir, on which I should say a few words to this Convention was on some of the "characteristics of the school system of the Province of Ontario." In your official programme, however, I find that you have enlarged the subject of my observations so as to embrace the whole of the school systems of Canada. This, in the short paper which I present, it would be impossible to do, as the word Canada has now so wide a signification. Canada now includes no less than seven provinces —Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, British Columbia and Manitoba. Each one of these provinces has a successful system of education in operation, somewhat on the model of that in Ontario. They, and I trust you, will pardon me if I so far venture to represent them this evening as to say that in many respects what I say of one is true of several, though not all, of the seven provinces of Canada.

Availing myself, therefore, of the kind invitation of your President to prepare a paper setting forth some of the prominent characteristics of the system of education in the province of Ontario as compared with those in the United States, I shall do so as briefly as possible.

We have, of course, many things in common with the school systems in the various States; but to these features of our educational law I shall not refer. As a preliminary, I may state that our school system rests upon our municipal system, and that our municipal system is as extensive and comprehensive as it is possible to make it. Thus every township and incorporated village has its council of five members, presided over by a reeve and deputy reeve (or chairman and vice-chairman). These reeves and deputy reeves (which, with the councilors, are elected directly by the people) form the municipal council for the county and manage all of its affairs. Every city and town has also its mayor and council. Altogether these municipal councils number about 450 or 500, or one council for every 3,500 of the population. They are considered as admirable training schools for our people in the principles and practice of local self-government.

Our system of education in Ontario, as in your country, has for its basis the primary school, next the high school and collegiate institutes, and lastly the university. Of the former, only, I shall speak in this paper.

The Ontario public school law embodies no principles which are not felt to be essential in other countries; but I think I may safely say that we have succeeded

in so harmonizing those essential principles, and blending them with our municipal and social systems, that under the Divine blessing we have been able to construct a comprehensive and yet flexible scheme of public instruction for the province.

The points of divergence from many, but not from all, of the public school systems in the United States, to which I shall call your attention, are as follows:

1. In regard to the Executive.
2. In regard to the qualification and appointment of public and high school inspectors.
3. In regard to the mode of licensing teachers.
4. In regard to the mode of transferring pupils from the elementary to the high schools.
5. In regard to the provision for worn out teachers.
6. In regard to the religious instruction in the schools (including provision for Roman Catholic separate schools).
7. In regard to compulsory education.
8. In regard to the mode of supplying our schools with maps, apparatus, books and requisites.

1. In regard to the Executive. The head of the education department is a non-political and permanent officer. The Rev. Dr. Ryerson, who now fills that post so acceptably, has held it for thirty years. The Legislature has thus far wisely held that after certain great principles of the educational system had been once settled it was sound national policy to intrust to some enlightened and responsible person (within certain restrictions) the important duty of perfecting and keeping in continuous and active operation the system of public instruction. I speak not now of a ministry of public instruction, which has its advantages as in Europe; but the success and efficieney of our system has never been subjected to periodical and incessant change; nor is its executive control systematically risked at the polls or ballot-box, where sound judgment and wise counsels do not *always* prevail; although the greatest care is taken to administer the system in accordance with the "well-understood wishes of the people." Systems of education are not built up in a day. The history of the present educational structure of Ontario confirms this truth; for with the continued fostering care of the Legislature it took at least ten or fifteen years under one guiding hand alone to bring the system through the preliminary stage of its existence. It is even yet in its elementary stages, and is still somewhat tentative in its character. Though young and vigorous, and endowed with capabilities and resources which are not always found combined in State systems of education, yet had Ontario adopted the plan, followed elsewhere, and provided what would practically have been only a temporary headship of her educational system, she would have doomed herself to continued educational infancy, and the schools would have been the subject of endless theory, experiment and change, without aim or purpose, and without the guidance of that settled and permanent policy which alone can develop and mature a great and comprehensive system.

2. Next to the Chief Executive, the most important officers of the system are the county superintendents (or inspectors as we designate them).

In Ontario these officers must have attained the foremost rank in the profession of teaching, and must hold certificates of the first class, and of the highest grade. None others can be appointed. They hold their offices virtually during good behavior, and they can only be dismissed either by the Governor or the County Council for incompetency or misconduct, or, in extreme cases, by a two-thirds vote of the body which appointed them. They perform the duties assigned them by law, under instructions issued from time to time by the Education Department. With such qualifications, and holding office under such a secure tenure, these officers have proved themselves to be thoroughly efficient and impartial in the discharge of their duties. They have each from fifty to one hundred and twenty schools under their inspection, and receive not less than $10 per school per annum, besides certain fees.

So with the High School and Collegiate Institute Inspectors. They must be university men of superior qualifications. They are appointed by the Council of Public Instruction for the Province, and hold office during good behavior. There are three to inspect about one hundred high schools and collegiate institutes.

3. In regard to the mode of licensing teachers, the plan is simple and yet comprehensive. I may state as a preliminary that, in entering the profession, every teacher is required to present a document vouching for his good moral character, and to pass an examination for the lowest grade of certificate first. And (unless he attends the normal school, and successfully passes through its course) he must hold that certificate for three years before he can aspire to the next higher rank in his profession. In this second grade he must, unless a successful normal school student, remain two years before he can compete for the highest grade or first-class certificate. I say "compete," for the standard is kept so deservedly high that of the ten who "compete," only one on an average reaches the object of his ambition and attains the highest rank in his profession.

In order to insure impartiality and uniformity, as well as a common standard of excellence for all the teachers in the Province, facilities have been provided by which every candidate teacher, wishing to obtain a certificate of any grade, shall attend an examination in his own locality, which is held simultaneously at the same hours of the same days with the same examination papers in every county and city of the Province.

The whole of the examination papers are prepared by a central body at Toronto, and are sent out with full instructions under seal to every county and city inspector of schools, who, with four other legally qualified examiners, holding first class certificates, conducts the examnations.

When the candidates are assembled in the examination hall this officer is required to break the seal in their presence, and then to distribute the papers among them. This is done with every successive paper, until the examination is over. The value of answers to the questions having been previously determined by the central authority, the local examiners have no difficulty in fixing the rank of each candidate who may pass, and to reject those who do not come up to the required standard. The local examiners only grant second and third class certificates. The papers of candidates for first class certificates must be sent to Toronto to be there adjudicated upon by the central board. As a further check and safeguard, it is required that the whole of the answers of all of the candidates throughout the Province shall also be sent up to Toronto at the close of the county examination, to be looked over if necessary, should any appeal be made against the decision of the local Board of Examiners.

4. As a fourth peculiarity of our system I may mention that precisely the same plan is pursued in regard to the transferring of the pupils from the public to the county high schools and collegiate institutes. All of such candidate pupils are subjected to a uniform and simultaneous examination, on the same hours and days, three times a year, all over the Province. The local reports of examiners, with the whole of the answers received, are also sent up to Toronto for confirmation.

5. The fifth specialty of our public school system is one which will, no doubt, commend itself to your sympathy and judgment. It is the legislative provision for enabling teachers, who may be worn out in the profession, to retire from it, and to receive a stated yearly allowance for the rest of their days. All male teachers are required by law to contribute two dollars half-yearly to this fund. Female teachers may do so at their pleasure. On reaching sixty years of age they can claim the right to retire and to receive a grant or pension at the rate of six dollars per annum for every year of service in the Province. Those holding the highest grade of certificate receive one dollar more for every year of service. Teachers below sixty years of age may retire with the same rate of pension per

year on special conditions. Female teachers may also retire on the same terms on paying up arrears.

As it is well known that the teacher's life is physically most exhausting, a boon of this kind is most welcome to those who have borne the burthen and heat of the day in a profession which has not always been so highly appreciated as it should have been

6. The sixth feature of our Canadian school system to which I shall refer may not be specially peculiar to it, but still it is worthy of notice. It is the regulation providing religious exercises and instruction in the schools, and for dealing with the R. C. school question.

It has been wisely and justly held by all enlightened educationists and statesmen that a State system of education for a Christian people should recognize for that system a religious basis; and as far as possible it should provide facilities for growth and development with that system. This we think we have conscientiously done in the adjoining province.

In the first place, it is recommended and provided that the schools shall be opened and closed with the reading of a portion of the scriptures, and by prayer. This prayer may be either extemporaneous, or according to a form which has been provided, and a printed copy of which is furnished to every school. No pupil is required to be present at these exercises should his parents object to them. Then, the law provides that the trustees shall give an opportunity to the clergy of each religious body to give religious instruction to the children of his own persuasion once a week. Further, the master of every school is required to hear his pupils recite once a week the ten commandments, so as to familiarize their young minds with that divine code of morals for their guidance and direction of their future life.

As to the mode of dealing with the Roman Catholic school question, which has of late entered so largely into your school politics, I may state that as long ago as 1840 our Legislature, on the union of the Provinces, laid down the principle of separate schools for the Roman Catholics. It also provided that where the teacher of the school was a Roman Catholic, Protestants might also establish separate schools. This principle(with various modifications) has been acted upon ever since. Thus, all denominations of Protestants and many Roman Catholics are united in the cordial support of our system of public instruction, while Roman Catholics who cannot conscientiously support that system have the right to establish schools of their own.

These schools on being legally organized, are entitled to a share in the legislative school grant—not in proportion to the number of Roman Catholics, but in proportion to the number of pupils which they educate, and the length of time during which their schools may be kept open. They are exempt from municipal taxation for public schools, and are therefore not entitled to any portion of the municipal rates, nor can they take part in the public school elections and meetings. They have the right to tax their own supporters, but they cannot levy a rate upon any other parties.

And here I would just mention a modification of the principle of our Roman Catholic separate schools, which was long contended for by the Roman Catholic clergy, but which was not conceded in our Province. The modification contended for was this: That the grant in aid of Roman Catholic separate schools, if made at all, should be made not on the basis of the attendance of pupils at the separate schools, but according to the number of Roman Catholics themselves. This claim was successfully resisted, and for the following reasons: 1. That to recognize it would be to recognize the general right of religious denominations as such to share in the school grant, irrespective of what they might or might not do for the promotion of education. 2. That if the right of Roman Catholics, as such, to share in the school grant were admitted, the Legislature could not thus discriminate in their favor and deny the same right to other religious bodies; and thirdly, that to act upon such a principle

would be virtually to endow religious bodies, rather than to provide especially (as was intended by the Legislature) for the education solely of the young. It was felt that, while in a free country, the religious and conscientious convictions of its citizens should be respected, yet that what was freely granted as a privilege should not be construed into an absolute and oppressive *right*, to the manifest detriment of the general interests of the body politic.

7. The seventh feature of our public school system is not peculiar to ourselves; yet in its practical application it differs somewhat from that in other States and countries. I refer to the principle of compulsory education.

After the Legislature had declared that the property of the country should be responsible for the support of its educational institutions, and that the schools should be absolutely free to all alike, it was felt to be the necessary complement to a system of free schools that the State should see that every child within its borders should receive some kind of an education. It therefore declared it to be the inherent right of every child to receive this education at the hands of its parent or guardian. It further provided that it shall be the duty of the trustees of every school in the province to provide adequate school accommodation for every child resident in the school division. These accommodations include a school house, the area of which to be of a prescribed size per pupil or resident, and a school site of at least half an acre in extent, properly fenced, and provided with necessary outbuildings, etc. It further requires the trustees to send a competent person to every house once a year, to take down the names of every child in the locality, and to ascertain where and how such child had been educated during the preceding twelve months. If it was found that the parent or guardian had neglected to provide his child between the ages of seven and twelve years with at least four months' schooling, or other education during the year, the law makes it imperative upon the trustees (and they have no option in the matter) either to summon such parent or guardian before a magistrate or to impose a rate bill of about one dollar per child for every month of neglect. This law goes into operation this year, and from it we anticipate the best results. As it is, our public schools are kept open the entire year, omitting, of course, the holidays and vacations. They are attended by 434,000 out of nearly 500,000 children, between the ages of five and sixteen years.

8. The eighth and last feature of our educational system, to which we shall call your attention, relates to the plan of providing the schools from a central depository with the maps, charts, diagrams, apparatus, library and prize books which they may require. The principle adopted in this matter is to make a grant of one hundred per cent. on every remittance for these things received at the depository from municipal and school corporations, and to send out articles to the value of double the amount of the sum thus remitted by the trustees or council. In this way local enterprise is stimulated, and the schools are amply supplied with the best kind of maps, apparatus and other requisites at the lowest possible cost.

Thus you will see that in the main features of our provincial system of education we have sought to make it as highly efficient as possible.

And now a word or two as to the motives by which we have been actuated in thus seeking to lay broad and deep the foundations of institutions designed to promote our intellectual, moral and social advancement.

1. We have lately had the ambition—a laudable and patriotic one—to sketch a noble national future for ourselves; to gather up into a compact whole the disjoined and often antagonistic elements of British nationality on this continent; to weld them together that they may become a power for good, and practically to test the application of British monarchial principles to the free, popular institutions of a new country. We had this ambition (you might even say temerity), lying, as we are, alongside almost for thousands of

miles a people confessedly one of the most enterprising, corageous and sagacious in the world. But we felt all this, and apart from this fact we felt, too, that in a country of free institutions like ours, in which (as with yourselves) all primary political power is lodged with the people, it becomes not only a prime necessity of social condition, but a true and noble instrument of national life, to provide the most effective means for lifting up every man in the community out of a possible state of debasing ignorance to a position in which he could use his faculties for the good of his fellows as well as for his own advancement in wealth, prosperity and happiness.

2. We are a young country—placed, as I have said, in close proximity to a large and wonderfully progressive people. In the good providence of God we have been permitted to construct, on the broad and deep foundations of British liberty, the corner-stone of a new nationality, leaving to those who come after us to raise the stately edifice itself. Apart from the Christianity of our people, what more lasting bond and cement of society in that new nationality than a free and comprehensive system of Christian education for the youth of the land, such as we have sought to establish? Our aim has, therefore, been to make that system commensurate with the wants of our people, in harmony with the progressive spirit of the times, and comprehensive enough to embrace the various branches of human knowledge, which are now continually being called into requisition in the daily life of the farmer, the artisan, and the man of business. The remarkable and almost unconscious development among ourselves of the manufacturing interests of the country has reached a magnitude and importance that it would be suicidal to those interests (in these days of keen competition with our American neighbors), and injurious to their proper development, not to provide for the production among ourselves of a class of skilled machinists, manufacturers, engineers, chemists and others. No one can visit any of the industrial centers which have sprung up in different parts of our country, and in our larger towns, without being struck with their value and importance, and the number and variety of the skilled laborers employed.

3. Rising up above this mere local view of the question, other broader and more comprehensive ones force themselves upon our attention. Are we not all conscious, on both sides of the line, of the extraordinary scientific and industrial progress of the present day? Do we not (you as a nation and we as a new Dominion) hope for and predict, under God's providence, a great future for our respective countries? In the very assertion of *our* incipient nationality we have entered the lists of industrial competition with the United States, and even with England and other countries. And do we not therefore require to make provision for training that class of young men who must in future take the leading part in that competition? The wonderful progress of the mechanical arts is within the memory of most of us. The marvelous revolution caused by the practical application of steam and telegraph (those golden links of science) to locomotion, commerce, industry and inter-communication, has so stimulated the inventive genius of man that we now cease, like your allies, to be astonished at any new discovery, and only await each successive development of science (still more wonderful than the last) to calmly discuss its merits and advantages. In this active race of competition our province (the leading one in the Dominion) *can not stand still!* With all our inventions we have never yet been able to discover the royal road to learning, and our youth cannot, Minerva-like, spring fully armed into the arena of competitive science and skill. We must, therefore, provide liberally for the patient and practical instruction of our youth in every grade and department of knowledge, so that with God's blessing we shall not fall behind others in the great race of national intelligence, of progress and of enlightment!

Be willing to learn from everyone.

✓ FREE TEXT BOOKS.

[From the last Annual Report of Hon. Warren Johnson, State Superintendent of Maine.]

At first thought it would seem sufficient provisions have been made for the education of *all* our youth, when the school-house and the teacher, shelter and tuition, had been freely granted at public expense. The pupil, however, can accomplish but little without books, his tools. To furnish these at private expense, proves in many instances a hardship, particularly to poor parents with large families, and more especially to the itinerant laboring class. To lighten this burden, some States have established regulations by which the same series or editions of text-books should be used throughout the limits of the State. This plan has not invariably been successful. Within a few years it has occurred to some of our most intelligent communities that the burden can be entirely lifted from the classes indicated by furnishing books at public expense, precisely as school shelter and tuition are. The advantages of this plan were alluded to in my last Report, and the experience of the city of Bath was brought in testimony as presented in the report of Supt. S. F. Dike. I am pleased to call the attention of school officers to this important feature again this year, by presenting the following communication from Thomas Tash, Esq., Supt. of Schools, city of Lewiston. The plan is equally desirable and possible in *all* our towns, and, it seems to me, would be readily adopted by our people, if school officers would clearly present the same for their consideration at the annual town meetings. By reference to section 6, School Laws, it will appear that sufficient authority is given towns to accomplish this desirable object, broadening present school facilities with immense advantage to children and large saving of expense to parents.

LEWISTON, Nov. 20, 1873.

HON. WARREN JOHNSON—*Dear Sir:* In answer to your inquiry, I beg leave to present the following as some of the advantages that have resulted from the adoption of the "Free Text-Book" plan in this city.

1. *Books are ready at the proper time.* When parents furnish books much time is often lost to scholars, and much inconvenience felt by teachers, especially at the beginning of the year, by delays in procuring proper books. Parents are also subjected to much inconvenience and vexation in being so often called upon to procure books and other materials for school use. Those having large families of children find their slender incomes taxed to the utmost, to procure these supplies, while those in affluence assure us that the supply of free text-books relieves them from a frequent and troublesome annoyance. Our wealthiest men are among those best pleased with the results of this experiment, the expense is so insignificant compared with the time, trouble and criticism which it saves.

2. *Every child is supplied with all the books, &c., needed.* No odious distinctions are now made. Our schools are as they never were before, absolutely "Free Schools." The city label in a book is no longer a mark of pauperism, but a mark of sovereignty, and attaches to all alike. It is as honorable for a child to bear home a school book having the city mark in it, as the book bearing the label of a free City Library. There is no longer *fussing* to get the books furnished to indigent pupils into their father's tax-bills. This is a convenience to our city authorities.

3. *Uniformity in books.* Non-uniformity has been the source of as much vexation in the school as in the Church, and it has been vastly more pernicious. In rural schools there has always been encountered the inconvenience of a multiplicity of unlike text-books. Many extra classes have had to be formed in consequence, as is now the case in most rural communities. Where free text-books are furnished, this difficulty is obviated. Again, there is no longer complaint from those moving from city to city, that books are different. They are at no extra expense in consequence.

4. *Considerable latitude can be allowed in the selection of books, without increasing the expense of them.* Wherever there are several schools in different parts of a city or town of the same grade, as Grammar or Intermediate Schools in the same city, teachers may be allowed a choice in the books they are to use. The school book is a tool, and the workman will work all the better with the tool of his choice. It is unpleasant to hear a teacher affect to have no choice in the text-book to be used. I would as soon hear the woodman claim to have no choice in his axe! A perfect workman will use to advantage even a poor tool, I am aware, but he will use with much more pleasure and success

a good one. If the teachers of such parallel schools are held with their classes to perform topically the same amount of work in a given time, and the School Board sanction several series of Geography or Arithmetic for example, as is now done in the city of New York, in which the work may be done, giving the choice of tools, but holding responsible for the work, no inconvenience could arise, but manifest advantage. One series of books is about as expensive as another, and the city might not be unwilling to divide its patronage, satisfy its teachers, and test the various books, all of which can be done under the plan of free text-books, with no additional expense to itself, but with the positive saving of securing to itself from all publishers the best possible terms. Again, in the successive classes in the same Grammar School, different books adapted to the progress of the pupils, as U. S. History for instance, might be used on the same subject, with no additional expense to the city, as each class must have its own book, whereas while pupils find their own books, it would be found a necessary saving of expense to them, to keep children during their entire course in the same book, even at considerable positive loss.

Whenever a change in a text-book is desired, as it sometimes is, it may be made when new books are needed, changing in one class of the grade at the time, until the old books are used up. This would be effected without loss, and it would discourage, on account of the time required, inconsiderate changes. A book could, before its general adoption, if found unsuitable, be tested in a single room or class, and rejected without much, if any loss.

Necessary changes could be made in the different schools of a country town, by transferring the books no longer used in one district to another without much expense or inconvenience. In this way the best and most modern books can be brought into use, as new books are needed as well there as in the city, and without additional expense if the town is the owner of the books used.

5. *Books are more entirely under the control of the teacher.* This is of considerable advantage in enabling the teacher to fix more definitely the hours of study. Over study is often more pernicious than lack of study, and is less easily controlled by the teacher. The former destroys the best scholars, the latter only injures the poorer. If books may be taken home or not at the discretion of the teacher, the time devoted to study may be largely determined, and the teacher is fairly responsible for it.

6. *Books furnished by the town or city are much more carefully used, and better kept than when owned by the children.* It might at first be supposed that this would not be so, but uniformly it is found to be true; there being four parties interested in the preservation of these books—School Officers, Teachers, Parents and Children. Small books used in the lower grades by young children must be expected to wear out, and to need replacing, annually perhaps, but their cost is trifling,—the larger and more valuable books in the higher classes will be used in successive classes many years.

Where books are owned by children, the writing and drawings in many of them are most vicious, but in books owned by the city nothing of the kind is allowed, so that it becomes a measure conducive to good morals among the young. The proper use, and the careful preservation of their books is a most valuable lesson to scholars, and of itself goes far to justify the policy of furnishing free text-books.

7. *It leads parents to procure reference books, useful both to themselves and their children.* When relieved from the constantly recurring expense of procuring school books, parents are found much more ready to procure other books on the same and collateral topics,—books more general in their scope. Teachers and school officers may do much to encourage this, thus making the public school in the broadest sense a home educator.

8. *Convenience in making transfers.* In graded schools, and in mixed schools also, the greatest impediment to transfers in making proper classification, is the want of suitable books. When books belong to the city or town, the advancing of pupils to higher grades or reducing them to lower is comparatively easy, and much less often the subject of home criticism. When scholars are promoted *on trial*, the books belonging to themselves last used immediately disappear, and the lack of them furnishes a stronger argument for maintaining their place, oftentimes, than ability or diligence. Where books are free this inconvenience vanishes.

9. *The free supply of books increases school time.* It increases both the number of pupils entering school, and the length of time on the average that they remain there. From careful observation where the plan of furnishing free text-books has been adopted, it is found to increase the number entering school, it is believed, from 5 to 10 per cent. Time is further saved by children entering school more promptly, not having to wait for books, in all grades and kinds of schools; at the

same time they will remain longer in the higher grades, the premature withdrawal from school among the higher classes having been largely caused by inability to meet conveniently the expense of the costlier text-books. How much time will be saved in all these directions, and in the prompt beginning of their study and recitations at the beginning of terms, cannot be estimated, but certainly a very large portion of every town. On this saving, we may in the presence of those who value general education safely rest the argument in favor of free text-books.

I cannot do better in closing than to quote a short extract from the last Report of the School Board in Lewiston, from the pen of our Governor elect, written some months after the plan of furnishing text-books free for their schools went into operation in that city, the more fully justified the longer the plan has been continued.

"Under this plan, the first cost of text-books for the pupils in our public schools, will not be over one-half of what it has been under the old plan of requiring pupils to purchase for themselves. Again, as scholars leave their books with the Superintendent when they have completed them, the same books will be made to do service two or three, or even more times, while under the old system they have too often been thrown aside after being used by one scholar. It is believed that the expense of school books under the new plan, will not exceed one-half what it was under the old system. This, indeed, has proved to be the case in Bath and some other cities that have inaugurated the free text-book system. Besides, the experience of these cities has demonstrated that the books are better cared for under a system in which the pupil receives them as a loan, under the supervision of the teacher, than that in which the pupil has the ownership and regards himself as having a right to do as he pleases with his own. Besides, the difficulty often hitherto experienced in inducing parents to supply their children with school books, and the frequent loss of time to the pupil from a want of such books, are entirely avoided under this system. And more important than all other considerations, many children who have been kept from school simply because their parents could not, or would not, incur the expense of books, will, under the free text-book system, be brought within the influence of the school-room. Indeed, on general principles, it is difficult to see why the city or town that on grounds of public school policy and necessity is required by law to provide school-room and teachers and school appliances for their children, ought not also to provide them with that most essential school appliance—text-books. Our own belief is that experience will demonstrate that the free text-book system is not only justified on grounds of economy, but also by the wisest public policy."

We will only add that the measure where adopted, has been found to be a popular one. It relieves from expense, anxiety and trouble, and could not be otherwise than popular. The leading, wealthiest and most intelligent citizens, are its most earnest advocates. We are confident also that should other towns and cities adopt the same plan, and proceed with it judiciously, it would be found equally satisfactory.

Yours very truly, THOMAS TASH.

[The following is an extract from the Report of the city of Bath:]

SCHOOL BOOKS.

The present, makes the fifth year since the city began to furnish school books for the entire children of the city. For convenience sake it may perhaps be as well to give here the cost to the city of school books each year.

First year	$1,583 52
Second year	2,795 40
Third year	1,224 08
Fourth year	1,674 44
Fifth year	1,591 72

At this time we have a larger amount of books on hand than at the close of either of the former financial years. It is probable, therefore, that the expenditure for the coming year will be somewhat less than the two preceding years. It will not, however, be much reduced, for, as the city increases, more books are required. Some books must also be constantly kept on hand to supply the immediate and continued demand.

During the past year the city of Lewiston has adopted the Bath plan of furnishing school books. I have also heard that some smaller towns in the eastern part of the State are doing the same. I have no doubt that within a few years, more cities and towns will adopt the course that Bath has, and furnish books to the children, so that the cost of education will be entirely reduced to ordinary taxation.

From our five years' experience in Bath, we can confidently recommend this plan to all cities in the State, as the best and cheapest method of providing school books. The towns and plantations will also find it to their advantage to adopt the same plan. The books can be purchased at low rates and used till worn out.

In looking over the reports of the School Committees of the cities, towns and plantations of this State, in the State Superintendent's Report, I find a very general demand for uniformity of text books, either State or town uniformity. I suppose all are in favor of town uniformity. A large number are in favor of State uniformity, but chiefly for the sake of bringing about in that, as the most ready way, perfect town uniformity. It is much to be doubted whether there is any easier or more practical mode of bringing about town uniformity than the plan adopted in Bath. Uniformity in the town is perfect of course, for they are purchased and placed in all the schools by the committee. The chief reason in favor of State uniformity, is the saving of the expense of purchasing new school books, to those parents who move from town to town. This expense will be obvi-

ated by the towns furnishing the school books. Parents who move from a town will leave their school books of course, but have them furnished again by the town to which they move. They would suffer no loss, therefore, provided all the towns in the State furnish school books for the schools.

The State Superintendent recommends the "Bath plan" as on the whole the best solution yet devised of the vexatious questions of "text books," "State uniformity," &c. This matter has been before the Legislature for several years, and there seems to be a tendency toward acquiescing in the plan adopted in this city. I hope it will be adopted throughout our State.

LATITUDE and the ELLIPTICITY of the EARTH.

BY ALEX. S. CHRISTIE, STOCKBRIDGE.

Now that the earth is known to be very nearly an oblate ellipsoid of revolution, a degree of latitude were better defined as the distance between two points on the earth's surface so situated on the same meridian that lines drawn from them to the center of magnitude would make with each other an angle of one degree. Were this the definition, a degree of latitude would decrease from the equator to the poles, and, as is easily shown, the length of a degree of longitude would vary as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{r^2 + tan^2 l}}$, l being the latitude of the place, and r the quotient of the minor divided by the major axis of the earth. For assuming the major axis ($=2A$) as an axis of abscissas, and the minor axis ($=2B$) as an axis of ordinates, we have, for any point on the earth's surface, the equation,

$$A^2y^2 + B^2x^2 = A^2B^2;$$

Also, $y = x \tan l.$

Combining these, a degree of longitude

$$\infty x \infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{r^2 + tan^2 l}}.$$

Latitude, as at present defined, is the divergence of the plumb-line from the plane of the equator, that is, the angle which the normal makes with the major axis. Denote this angle by l', and the reciprocal of r by r'.

Then, as before, $A^2y^2 + B^2x^2 = A^2B^2$

Also, $\tan l' = -\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{A^2y}{B^2x}$

Combining, a degree of longitude

$$\infty x \infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{r'^2 + tan^2 l'}}$$

The latitude of a place between the poles and the equator would differ by these methods, and, in middle latitudes, materially.

We have, $\tan (l'-l) = \frac{\tan l' - \tan l}{1 + \tan l' \tan l}$

Also, as before, $\tan l' = \frac{A^2y}{B^2x} = r'^2 \tan l$

Combining these, $\tan (l'-l) = \frac{\tan l (r'^2-1)}{1 + r^2 \tan^2 l}$

Or, $\tan (l'-l) = \frac{\tan l' (1-r^2)}{1 + r^2 \tan^2 l'}$

The maximum value of $(l'-l)$ is found to be 11′ 43″, (over thirteen miles), and occurs where $l = 44° 54' 9''$ and $l' = 45° 5' 52''$. This angle $(l'-l)$ is a measure of the equatorial tendency of objects on the earth's surface, (caused by the axial revolution of the earth), the force which deflects the plumb-line from the earth's center, and enables rivers flowing toward the equator to "run up hill."

MUSIC IN COMMON SCHOOLS.—Until quite recently no attention whatever has been given to music in the primary department of the public schools of this country. In some of the higher and intermediate grades singing has been introduced to open, or close the school exercise; but even then not as a regular branch of the school system. Now, however, the advantages and influence of music when taught systematically in the public schools is receiving more attention than ever before, and there is a fair prospect of its eventually taking its place with ready writing and the other first principles of a Common School Education. This is the only way by which we can ever become a thoroughly *musical* people.

The common objections to the introduction of music into the schools, as in introducing any thing new, have been met and answered. There is yet opposition, to be sure, but it comes mainly, we rejoice to say, from extreme classes—Capitalists,

whose children are supplied with every facility for the acquirement of a scholarly education, and the ignorant, who offer such opposition as this, which by the way, is a *fac simile* of a note sent to a teacher of our acquaintance: "i dont want mi childer to spind iny time in learning to sing. he hant got no vois nor dont want him to hav. So yule keep him to readin and siferin."

The idea that little children can not learn to sing by note, because they can not keep the mind upon the "place" is a wrong one. We believe that children can be taught to sing by note; even before learning the alphabet. As soon as old enough to find the page they should be taught to sing notes, and if too young to read the words, let them be taught by note. Children do learn to keep their place as well in reading notes and singing, as in reading their A, B, Ab's; all live teachers say so.—*The Citadel.*

Report of the President of the State University.

[We copy the Report of President BASCOM from the Report of the Board of Regents.]

To the Regents of the University of Wisconsin: The duties of a State University to the education of the State, are very grave, and can not be completely met without a close affinity and orderly interdependence of all the schools of the State. If the University is to minister to the general instruction of the State, that general instruction must, in turn, minister to it; and all our educational institutions must unite in a systematic and well organized body. Any public school that does not find a place and a work in this systematic instruction, is, so far, taking strength from it, distracting attention and effort. That the University may meet to the full its important part in State education, it needs to be sustained by the knowledge, approval and warm regard of the citizens of the State; and we are desirous to do what we can to commend it to their favor, and to make it an occasion of general and just pride.

The University comes in direct contact with the instruction of the State, through the graded schools and the schools which rank with these in their work. There have entered the University in this opening term of our year forty-three graduates of graded schools, entitled by examination to free tuition. Of these, thirty-six are in our Freshman class, the whole class containing eighty-two members.

This fact is sufficient to show that the University is beginning to draw directly and strongly on the public schools for support, and is able thus, in turn, to influence and guide them in their work.

Of the remaining forty-six in our Freshman class, thirty-six have been fitted in the University itself. We are anticipating a rapid transfer of this entire work to the graded schools. That these should become, throughout the State, adequate fitting schools, is of the highest importance to us and to liberal education. We do not wish at present to raise the conditions of admittance to our Freshman classes, but we are very desirous that those who come to us from the graded schools *should be well prepared.* Here is our emphasis. The vigor, breadth and thoroughness of instruction in these schools, are matters of vital interest. We should be especially pleased if our graded schools could all of them afford a good fit for all of our courses, classical as well as scientific. The option in education of many young men and women is restricted by their inability to secure a fit for any other than the scientific course. We wish that education, in all its branches, might stand on a fair, equal footing in our public institutions. Quite sure we are, that each branch and each course will prosper best by a free affiliation with other branches and other courses.

The wish and the want which the University expresses, in its relation to the systematic education of the State, are more and better and broader graded schools, schools intermediate between merely primary and collegiate training. The health of the midway schools is essential to the health of those above and those below them.

In the University itself, we think we can justly say, that the instruction, colle-

giate and professional, which we offer, is good. We are desirous, however, first, to make it better on its present basis; and, later, to extend it. For the first purpose we need, on account of the multiplication of branches and of students, to enlarge our corps of professors, that each may give himself individually to a single class of duties, and that instruction in the University may, from the outset, be in the hands of experienced professors. We commend our wants in this respect to the citizens and Legislature of the State. The time has come in which the work of the University, its position, and the number of its students, require that it should be in the hands of a full corps of able instructors. In reference to these instructors, we wish to know nothing but their ability to quicken, to ably and honestly guide, young men. New professorships are called for at once. First among them is a professorship of Rhetoric and Oratory, and a professorship of Natural History. The instruction in the natural sciences is well given in the University, and we are desirous that it should be sustained by equal interest in literary and philosophic training. We have no sympathy with the method which exalts one branch of knowledge at the expense of others. We wish to offer parallel and carefully cultivated lines of instruction. We have no fear that any real knowledge will fail to justify itself.

In the external conditions of education, our wants are urgent. We need an astronomical observatory, with its equipments; a chapel, and a building devoted to the natural sciences. Our instruction in astronomy is constantly restricted through our deficiencies in the means of illustration. It bears an almost wholly abstract and theoretical form. Lacking a chapel, we lack the opportunity of assembling the students in a body, of imparting to them general incentives, of inspiring in them a common spirit, or even of making to all alike the simplest communication. We are also cut off from any common literary entertainments or rhetorical exercises among ourselves. This would not be so much to be regretted, if the majority of our students were professional students, in quite distinct departments, as it now is, when the large majority of them are collegiate and academic students, calling for compact organization, personal influence and a common discipline, with a constant concession in manners and action to the general interests.

Serious, however, as is this want, and anxious as we are that it should be met as speedily as possible, we have another want still more urgent, that of a science hall, which shall draw off from our main building, the instruction in chemistry, physics, natural history, engineering and mining. Eeach of these branches calls for large rooms and large accommodation by way of laboratories, work-rooms and cabinets. These it is impossible adequately to furnish in the University Hall, and the inadequate rooms that are furnished, are supplied greatly at the expense of other branches of instruction. Teachers in other departments could immediately occupy, to great advantage, our present recitation-rooms. The same room, often too small for its purposes, is occupied by a series of teachers from hour to hour with much confusion, and a loss of opportunity, either to make ready for the recitation, or to tarry with the pupils after its completion. Our halls are crowded to excess at every change off, and, from our contracted laboratories, come to the whole building, the disturbing odors or gases of a chemical process. Large, well ventilated, inviting rooms for recitations, work and collections, are the pressing necessity of our very vigorous departments of natural science. The University is ready to grow at once, is ready for improvement in all the means of instruction and in scholarship. Our numbers are already in advance of our appliances. There is a flood-tide with us that will, if improved, bear us easily to a large success. Our wants are urgent, however, and can not be postponed. We can wait to supply them in order; but the first, a science hall, stands in the way of them all, is the representative of them all, and so is sustained by the claims of them all. The University never gave more promise of a

good work than now, but such a state is always one of wide awake activity and persistent demands. So far it is critical, and calls for wise improvement. We most earnestly hope that the institution will commend itself to the Regents, to the Legislature and to the State, for an immediate supply of its necessities, and that falling in with favoring tendencies, we shall ripen them into a speedy and complete success. We would rank our wants in the following order: Science Hall, Chapel, Enlarged Instruction, Astronomical Observatory; and would hope that the next three years might see them all met. So shall we possess the present and command the future.

THEORY & PRACTICE—ESPECIALLY PRACTICE

BY GEORGE HARPER, BUFFALO COUNTY.

Some years ago, the writer attended a teacher's institute in another State where the usual pedagocigal principles were discussed and the usual plans and methods suggested for adoption by tyros in the school room. The conductor, however, it was evident, took up rather much of the time in the treatment of theoretical points which, it is true, were in themselves valuable and interesting enough; but the practical every day business of the teacher—that which lies before him in the daily pursuit of his calling,—received comparatively but a slight notice at his hands. But being a pleasing and agreeable speaker, and only wanting in a little infusion of *the practical* into his prelections, he kept up the attention of his hearers to the last. On leaving the institute for home, in company, as it happened, with a young Irishman, one of the members who had been remarkable for the closeness of his attention to all that was said and done from the beginning to the end, we expressed our favorable opinion of the conductor, when Patrick replied, "Sure enough, the gentleman did his level best to instruct us in the rules of the noble science of teaching; but still he shot a little over some of our heads at times; and for my part I would have been all the better pleased with him, if he had only thought of explaining *the cube root.*"

The above very sensible remark of Mr. Patrick O'Leary, formerly teacher of School District No. 1 of the Town of Ardnakinnacrochigan, County of Balafash, State of Iowa, a man who would not have looked up to six foot two, and as much above the average country pedagogue in mental as in bodily stature, is very significant, and suggests a want which is often felt by the teachers of our district schools when they attend institutes or sit down to the perusal of a school journal; and the name of such is legion, for they are many. They don't find there exactly what they require. For fine-spun theories on the relation between the material and spiritual worlds, even by such profound thinkers as Tyndal, they care very little; and they would not give a good explanation of the "cube root" for a wagon-load of protoplasm. The plausible but often perverted speculations of such men as Herbert Spencer, however skillfully presented and admirably written, share the same fate at their hands; they don't read them; and consequently are impervious to the subtle *virus* which lurks in the cunning logic of the avowed sceptic. Of course there are teachers of a much higher grade of culture who attend institutes and read educational periodicals; and such must also be presented with their appropriate mental dietary, or they will languish and pine away for want of intellectual stimulants; but the number of such is but small compared with the *hoi polloi* so well represented by Mr. Patrick O'Leary. Such constitute the rank and file of our grand educational army and they also must be fed with meat convenient for them; and they would be more benefited and feel vastly more pleased by a simple and lucid explanation of some rather puzzling rule, a difficult problem than by the grandest views of the science of teaching or the philosophy of the mind. In a periodical devoted to public education, there is of course a very wide range of subjects fairly open, but to accommodate the tastes and to meet the requirements of the "greatest

number" in intellectual, no less than in political economy, is ever the "best policy." And as some writer has beautifully said, in speaking of the wonderful range and scope of the topics embraced in holy writ, comparing the Bible to a stream in which the largest elephant might swim or a young lamb wade, so it might be said of such periodicals, when judiciously managed, that they present a mixture of profound speculations—enough to task the powers of the wisest with practical hints for the guidance of beginners—teaching both theory and practice—but especially practice.

Believing the maxim that "every man is debtor to his profession" and that he can best meet his obligations in this respect by contributing even the smallest mite to the general stock of knowledge concerning it, I consider it the duty of every teacher of experience to publish whatever he thinks may best conduce to the general edification. Teaching, we should remember, is about the only business in which people who find out anything valuable to others in the same line do not at once apply to the proper office and cover this discovery with a patent claim! In this respect, may it not justly be regarded as the most liberal of all the professions? Doubtless there is about as much ingenuity and inventiveness required to manage and to teach children, especially when obstinate wayward or wrong headed as to invent a new lamp chimney or discover an improved shoe tie. It is to be hoped that teachers, inspired with the spirit of the above maxim will, from time to time, send for publication whatever they may consider valuable to their fellow-laborers in the same field. In the meantime, as a very trifling contribution, I send you a few rough notes of a lesson on

PROPORTION, OR THE RULE OF THREE,

as it would be taught to a class commencing the study of that rule. Some teachers seem inclined almost to ignore or discard this rule, on the ground that all or most of the examples which usually fall under it may be better solved by "analysis;" but *proportion* is nevertheless a standard principle in the science of numbers, and must always be regarded as holding a most important place in every scheme or system of common arithmetic as well as in the other branches of mathematics. Therefore it is highly desirable and necessary that it should be thoroughly mastered by the teacher who would desire to teach it successfully.

To give an idea of *proportion*, first, in its ordinary acceptation, a figure is sketched on the blackboard, about six inches high, having a head about the size of an orange, and the question is put, whether the head be large or small? "Lnrge," is the universal reply. "But is it nearly as large as the smallest head in this room?" "No," is the reply to this, but sometimes less readily and simultaneously, as if there were a moment's hesitation at the seeming inconsistency. "Why then should the head be called large?" is naturally the next question; and it is sometimes answered from some quarter that "it is *large for the body, or in proportion to the body.*" The same use may be made of disproportionately long or short arms, &c., &c., and occasion may be taken in passing to show by a few palpable examples, that in everything proportion is essential to beauty of form. Some examples are then taken of

NUMERICAL PROPORTION,

using, in the first instance, such numbers as are aliquot parts of the others, as follows:

2 : 4 : : 3 : 6
4 : 2 : : 6 : 3
2 : 6 : : 3 : 9
9 : 3 : : 6 : 2, &c.

Attention is then called to the effect of the correlative terms *as* and *so*, meaning, that as 2 is the half of 4, so 3 is the half of 6, and as 4 is the double of 2, so 6 is the double of 3. Some examples are then given, leaving one of the terms to be found by inspection:

3 : 6 : : 4 :
3 : 9 : : : 15
4 : : : 2 : 8
: 5 : : 21 : 7

and I never saw a class fail in this attempt,

when their understanding of the previous step had been ascertained.

The next step is to bring out that the product of the extremes is equal to the product of the means, and this is best done by way of induction from the examples and any others in addition to them; and it may be made apparent, as naturally connected with the result, that this is true of the extremes and means in magnitude as well as in position, though they may not be the same; that is that the product of the *greatest* term multiplied by the *least* is equal to the product of the other two, whichever pair be the extremes in position. Thus, in 4:2::6:3 the means in position are the extremes in magnitude. The class may already know that if any product be divided by one of the factors the product will be the other one. Now, in applying this as an operation for producing any one of the four terms of a proportion from the other three, when it is not evident in simple inspection, we say that, if the common product be divided by one of the extremes it will give the other extreme, and, if by one of the means, it will give the other mean.

Before applying numerical proportion in the solution of practical questions, the relations of things among themselves are considered proportionally; and it is found that as one quantity of goods is to another quantity of (the same) goods, so will the price of the first quantity be to the price of the second; for example, as a hundred weight is to a quarter, so must the price of a hundred weight be to the price of a quarter, or four times as much. As one sum of money is to another sum of money so will the goods for the first sum be to the goods for the second sum. As one number of men is to another number of men, so will the work done by the first number be to the work done by the second (in the same time, &c.) As an example of inverse proportion, to which the name is palpably applicable, we find that as one number of men with reference to work, so will the *time* required by the second number be to the time required by the first. This last case usually requires to be illustrated at greater length and more in detail than is admissible here, before the idea is mastered by a whole class, but it involves no difficulty in competition with the object to be gained.

LANGUAGE.

BY JULIA CLARK, NEOSHO, DODGE CO.

Many teachers will allow that Language, as a practical study, is sadly neglected in the District School; that pupils as a general thing, have no correct idea of putting words and sentences together in order to express them for perusal. And yet this deplorable ignorance will never be removed by simply admitting its existence. The child must be taught to *talk* in written language; and when he finds he can not, in any words found in the English language, express such corruptions of speech as "hern," "yourn," "minght," "chimbley," housen," "quare," &c., he will begin to wonder why he was ever taught to speak in this manner, and desire to become acquainted with the words which will express what he has to say, and will thus be led to form a correct habit of speech.

Correcting errors in the general conversation of pupils will do much toward introducing the use of correct language. In my own experience, I have proved speech-making to be beneficial in its results; that is, I call upon some pupil to arise at his desk, and tell all he knows about a given subject; when he has finished, giving to others the privilege of correcting any grammatical errors or false statements.

Written compositions should not be neglected, but we think the oral should have the precedency. The following are *bona fide* copies of *first* compositions laid on my desk, after I had given the class a few oral instructions, and a subject. The first, by a young lady of 16, exhibits her wonderful command of language acquired in regular attendance at a district school within ten miles of our metropolis:

FARMING.—It is naise too Bee A Farmer. When you ainte lazzy to work. And work very hard We. Plant thee seeds And

We like too see thee garden too look naise.

FARMING, BY W. R. B.

"Farming is a noble profession," has been said by many who would rather others did the farmer's work. Still it is true; farming is the back-bone of the world; if the farmer fails, the world fails. The farmer raises all the food that is used in the world, and most of the materials used for clothing, are first produced by the farmer. In the spring time, the farmer sows all his seeds, in summer he spends most of his time cutting up thistles and picking potato bugs, and in the fall he gathers in his crops and plows his land for the coming season.

Farmer's work is the hardest in the world and he is not half payed for it.

No. two is the first composition of a boy 15 years old.

PROPER SCHOOL INCENTIVES.

The subject of proper school incentives, without doubt, furnishes one of the most difficult problems for the teacher to solve. Many different views are held upon this subject, and many of them may be supported by good arguments. But too often, we fear the teacher is looking only toward immediate results rather than consulting the future good of the pupils involved. The pressure brought to bear upon many of our teachers by the so-called per cent system has a tendency to urge them to use incentives which will serve the present only, and in the end work injury to the best interests of the school.

One plan which is sometimes resorted to even in this advanced age of education, we feel obliged to condemn. We base this condemnation not alone upon our experience as a pupil, nor our observation and experience as a teacher, but also upon the results obtained by many eminent educators who have preceded us, and who have left their record to prevent us from being betrayed into mistakes and dangers from which they barely escaped. This custom, which we believe to be so pernicious to the best interest of pupils, is that of detaining them after school to do the work not properly done in school time; to study unlearned or poorly prepared lessons. This habit, we think, will in the end tend to make them dislike more and more the subjects so studied.

Our best students of human nature have laid down as a principle, that we should never allow anything, which we desire our pupils to become interested in and to love, to become connected in any way with the idea of punishment. These being associated, the mind of the pupil naturally turns with dislike to the work which is required as a penalty; regarding it as the cause of punishment rather than the want of application, which is the true cause. Hence that in which we wished him to engage with interest, becomes anything but agreeable. We grant that instances may be found where some may have been benefited by such a method; but where one such case may be instanced, fifty may be found where the results have been unsatisfactory and even detrimental to the intellectual and moral education of pupils.

Again, we believe that the tendency of this method of treating *dull* and delinquent pupils alike, is to cause them to dislike not only their books, but the teachers and the school, and eventually to drive them from the privileges of the school, where, in justice to themselves and society, they should be retained as long as possible.

We earnestly ask teachers, who may have adopted this practice, to carefully consider the question in its bearings upon future results, and we feel assured that they will arrive at the conclusion that the practice is contrary to good management, and tends to evil rather than good.—E. H. C., *in National Teacher.*

ENJOY YOUR WORK.—No man is ever successful in its completest sense, who does not enjoy what he is doing. If your business is dull and uninteresting, and you are always wishing to leave the old homestead and get a place elsewhere, your life will be a miserable failure; but if you love your work, give to your business your best thoughts, enter upon the activities of the opening year with energy born of contentment and hope, you will be both a successful and happy man.

A Method of Instruction for Girls in Paris.

This method was founded by M. Colart, and is continued with very great success by M. Remy. As it has now stood the test of more than sixty years' experience, it is at least entitled to consideration.

M. Remy meets his classes but once a week, and then for a session of only two hours. This weekly recitation is nothing more or less than a careful examination of the pupils in the lessons of the previous week, but it proves so exhaustive that the pupils are obliged to devote from three to five hours each day, with the aid of parent, governess or tutor, to their preparation. Each girl is invariably accompanied to recitations by either governess or parent. It is, indeed, quite common to see *both* parents present, busily engaged in writing the answers to the questions propounded, to be afterwards compared with the daughter's. A delightful companionship is suggested by this community in mental pursuits.

In the classes the girls are seated in chairs placed around a long table; M. Remy occupying the middle seat at one side, while the parents and other persons present are accommodated with chairs placed in rows, as one sees at "parlor lectures."

Order being secured, the first thing done by all present is to make a note of the lessons to be learned the coming week. These are always written beforehand upon a blackboard which hangs back of the professor. This done, M. Remy proceeds to read two or three essays selected from the whole number which have been handed in. After the few words of comment suggested by the essays, follows the recitation in poetry. About forty lines are committed weekly; and, as the brief session of two hours would by no means admit of each pupil's reciting the whole, M. Remy calls upon one (we will say Mlle. A.) to begin. Mlle. A. responds promptly with the first two lines; being then interrupted by the professor's "Tres bien, Mademoiselle; maintenant, Mlle. X.," Mlle. X. takes up the dropped thread, to be followed by any one whom M. Remy may chance to select. There being no regular order of succession, no pupil knows when her turn may come. It will therefore readily be perceived what complete attention is secured, and how impossible it is for any pupil to resort to subterfuge to insure her own portion.

The recitation in poetry is the only verbal one. That finished, each pupil opens one of the pile of exercise books in front of her, in preparation for recitation in history.

M. Remy by no means confines himself to the formal questions of the text-book, but makes questions of his own concerning whatever of importance the lesson suggests. Each pupil is expected to look up, by aid of encyclopedia or whatever other authority may be available, all points which will serve to a better understanding of the period of which the lesson treats. The first question being asked, each pupil proceeds to *write* her answer. When finished, she holds up her book for inspection by the assistant teacher who has in her charge. There are several of these assistant lady-teachers. They take their positions behind the young ladies, walking from one to another to overlook the books submitted to their criticism. If the answer proves satisfactory, the pupil receives a small counter. At the end of each recitation the number of counters received by each pupil is set down opposite her name in the report book, thus showing unfailingly the grade of excellence.

Each lesson is conducted in the manner described as employed in history, the only sounds which one hears being the scratch of the busy pens, and M. Remy's questions. Never have we seen two hours more profitably employed, and, it may be added, judging from the animated expression of the girls' faces, never more satisfactorily.

It is impossible to convey any just idea of the dispatch attained, and the intense interest manifested in these lessons. The pupils are evidently completely *en rapport* with their instructor, who, in his turn, comports himself toward each of them as a courtier might toward his sovereign lady.

Prizes are awarded for certain degrees of excellence in the different branches. To obtain the prize in history, it is necessary to answer intelligently five hundred questions. As the course covers a period of only twenty-six weeks, and as during this period there are only *weekly* recitations, it is easy to imagine the amount of real work which is necessary to success.

It is just the peculiarity of the weekly session which we wish to consider. While it may not be advisable for all, it is especially adapted to meet the wants of that large class of girls whose health will not admit of regular and close confinement to the duties of the school-room. One perceives at a glance that with this method all danger of periodical over-exertion of mind or body can, with proper forethought, be avoided, thus securing during *the critical period* that entire rest which Dr. Clarke so wisely recommends.

This form of teaching may be essentially characterized as *the elastic method.* For it is so in more senses than one. Pecuniarily speaking, when carried on with several hours' help daily from a tutor or governess, it is of course very expensive. But where circumstances make economy necessary, an ambitious girl can prepare her lessons with the help of only a few hours' study during the week. In many cases, indeed, when either parent chooses to assist the child, this additional expense of private visiting governess can be dispensed with altogether.

The fact must not be overlooked that in these recitations each pupil is required to answer *all* questions *in writing.* The immense advantage thus secured of keeping the pupils' minds strictly upon the subject, with no chance to wander, cannot be over-estimated.

The crying evil of our present methods of instruction is undoubtedly "overcrowding" of the mind, and, as a result, mental indigestion. Cases are far too frequent of girls from twelve to fourteen years of age found studying geography, arithmetic, history, French, Latin, and music—and all these to be prepared for *daily* recitation! We can no more expect the mind to receive lasting impressions from the spasmodic glimpses which such a system affords, than we can expect a satisfactory photograph by sitting before the camera only one half the time required to procure a suitable impression. The result in both cases is much the same—and the physical blur in the one case is but too typical of the mental blur in the other.

Why cannot parents be contented if a child under ten years of age be taught absolutely nothing but reading, writing, and spelling? During the period from ten to twelve, if elementary arithmetic and geography be added, it is all that most children are capable of managing. It would be far better to prolong the time devoted to each study, giving one portion in advance and one in review, than to distract the mind with more branches.

At this age most children are or should be required to memorize daily. Every one is aware how retentive the memory is, of all which is thoroughly committed in early youth. The attempt, then, prematurely to force upon the mind of a child a knowledge of sciences, which require maturity of mental powers to appreciate, is worse than folly. Far better to store the memory with the thoughts of our old and best authors in both prose and poetry, thus securing a rich mine for future use.—*Atlantic Monthly.*

EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS.

[Lecture by Carl Schurz, in Chicago, Nov. 17, reported in the Chicago Times.]

Senator Schurz, in opening, stated that he did not propose to indulge in flowers of rhetoric, but to speak in plain terms. There was no country in which education was so much discussed as in the United States. Here education was looked upon as the purifier of public morals, and a better education was generally pointed to as the remedy for moral evils of all kinds. It was now necessary for people to know much more than of old, and of a consequence they had to learn much more. Yet the time for learning was just as limited as it was before. It was of supreme importance, therefore, that the time be well employed, and here the next essential

point was struck. He was opposed to "cramming" a boy with specific knowledge. What was necessary was to give the boy a good mental training, a training which would facilitate subsequent self-education. Boys were taught a great deal which they forgot in after life, and he had to make a confession, and that was, that he had forgotten a great many things which he learned in early life. These things were of little practical use to him now, and the question might be asked him, was not the time spent in acquiring such knowledge thrown away. He thought it was not. By this means he received

A MENTAL DISCIPLINE

and habits of mental labor, which made studious labor easy and desirable. The training of the mind was a most important portion of the education of youth. This mental discipline had a lasting effect, and could not be overestimated. He would not contend that specific knowledge was not necessary, but the discipline of the mind was of greater importance. It ought to commence before the child reached the teacher's hand. John Stuart Mill was taught Greek by his father when only three years of age, and every one thought that Mill must have had an immense brain to have stood this test. But the fact was, that it was no harder for that child to learn Greek in this manner than it was for a German child to learn English in this country or an American child to learn the French language. Parents had not always the power to teach their children a foreign idiom, but they should teach them to see correctly, to understand correctly, and to produce in proper language that which they saw and heard. This was the first point in a system of rational education. There was nothing which would so greatly lead to success in after life as the assiduous cultivation of the

POWERS OF OBSERVATION

and hearing. A desire to learn was in this manner stimulated, and the child was taught to reproduce into mind the exact truth as it is. This ends the first and greater branch of education.

Mr. Schurz then went on to condemn the practice adopted in many of our public schools of teaching the sciences by text books in the form of question and answer. No real knowledge was imparted, and the memory was exercised at the expense of the mind. What could be taught in school was not much, but what little could be taught should be that which put the pupil in the way of acquiring knowledge in after life. Knowledge learnt by rote soon left the student. The pupil should be required to use his own language in answer to the questions in the text-book, and this would lead him to think and acquire a taste for reading. He dwelt upon the importance of cultivating a taste for reading in the student, and to this end they should be made acquainted with the names of authors. School libraries ought also to be established throughout the country, and the works of which they were composed should be judiciously selected. Every school district in town or country ought to have its school library. The outlay would be very small, and the benefit which would result from it commensurate in proportion. These libraries would give a

POWERFUL IMPULSE TO SELF-INSTRUCTION

on which the progressive development of popular education depended. Such a movement would not everywhere meet with approbation, but it would make ignorant parents understand how much there was to be learned, that they did not learn in their early days. To carry out this system of education, educators of greater intelligence would be required, but the points he had referred to could be incorporated by an ordinary teacher without much difficulty.

The principal reason why teachers were not so able as they otherwise would be, was that they were so poorly remunerated. Teaching should be acknowledged as a profession of standing, and the rewards should be such as to drive away the existing restlessness to get out of it. The remarks he had made also applied to female education, which of late had been discussed with heated vigor. He did not think a woman could know too much,

provided that which they knew they knew well. Girls should be educated so that they could sustain themselves when necessary, but he did not think their education should stimulate a desire and ambition to work their way in life independently. He did not think it was well for woman to be alone. [Laughter.] In his opinion it was the duty of every woman to get married. Would not the public pronounce a system of education which turned young men to bachelorhood as absurd? He looked upon a system of education which tended to make young women spinsters as equally absurd. The education of the sexes should be, on the one hand, to make them

GOOD HUSBANDS AND FATHERS,

and on the other to make them good wives and mothers. Domestic education appeared to him to be more important in the female than in the male, because the woman exercised a greater influence on society. Woman as a wife and a mother had a most exalted mission, and for this mission she should be carefully educated. He strongly deprecated the practice of families living in boarding houses and hotels, and he believed that a great many of the domestic troubles and misfortunes which occurred in this country arose from this custom. The atmosphere of home did more to make children good and keep the husband good than any other influence. To properly manage a home required great ability, and education in sound notions of practical order and economy. The welfare and prosperity of the nation depended upon the education of our girls. Woman was the centre of luxury, and around her it would grow rank unless she was trained to avoid vicious tastes. Woman was also the centre of virtue and in her atmosphere it would grow best.

Mr. Schurz dwelt upon the necessity of instructing girls in household duties and domestic economy. The scientific side of this study should at the same time be imparted, so that they might know how to select

GOOD AND WHOLESOME FOOD.

Many lives would be saved if the benefit of a plentiful supply of fresh air were to be found in all households. A mother must have something more than mere maternal love. She should possess practical knowledge and know how to use that knowledge. There was a feeling in the upper classes of society averse to all practical work except shopping, which was the most impracticable of all the duties devolving upon women. The education of girls should especially fit them for the educational mission which was before them. If they educated girls, they educated mothers, whose influence would be felt in after years in the nation. The strongest influence men received was from their mothers, and the principles of good or evil implanted in the child's heart must certainly bear fruit. The mother was the most powerful educator, because she was the first, and what was afterward taught was built on the foundation laid by the mother.

THE EDUCATION OF OUR GIRLS

was a serious matter in an ideal, moral, and religious sense. The bane of woman's existence in this country was idleness of thought and emptiness of daily life. These evils should be remedied with some pursuit, and the vacuum being filled up, the tone of her life would be improved. He did not deprecate the education of women for the purpose of maintaining themselves, but the highest sphere of woman was the domestic sphere. Education should also teach how to enjoy. To understand the nature of men or women,their pleasures must be examined. Human nature would seek recreation, and when they removed the means of gratifying the craving for drink without providing other means of recreation, the drink would be procured. The greatest pleasure was in

THE CULTIVATION OF THE BEAUTIFUL

in nature and art. This taste, while it was natural to a certain extent, was produced by education. These tastes should be cultivated by the establishment of free concerts in parks and public buildings, and he maintained that capitalists would do infinitely more good by bequeathing

money for this purpose than by leaving large sums to missionary societies.

An attractive home made the members of the home seek recreation at their own firesides, and the influence upon the inmates of that home was of a most salutary character. The observation of the philosopher: "Happy is the man who has a hobby," was very correct. Very few men who had hobbies were mad men, and the elevating influence of these was great and beneficial.

He concluded by thanking the audience for the attention given to him. [Long and continued applause.]

The Practice of Teaching according to the Laws of Mental Science.

METHOD OF CONDUCTING A RECITATION IN HISTORY.

As an example of the branches learned by the exercise of memory, we may take history. There are three laws of mental science that should be borne in mind when teaching it:

First. That is more easily remembered which appeals to both the eye and the ear.

Second. Repetition impresses the memory more vividly than single presentations of a fact or truth.

Third. Whatever ideas we clothe in our own language, are thereby very deeply impressed on the tablet of memory, and if we *write* it in our own language the impression is still more lasting.

The method of asking long and leading questions requiring only yes or no for answers, is a method that requires little study on the part of the pupil, and though often pursued will never make brilliant historians. The better way is to give a topic and let the pupil tell what he can about it with no further effort from the teacher. My order of exercises in conducting a history recitation, is as follows, and it works admirably in a class of eighteen, ranging from fourteen to eighteen years. That there are better ways, I admit, and I hope to learn some better methods from those who read this. But this method is better than the one I was subjected to in district school, and a recitation can be finished in thirty minutes.

1. Send some member of the class to the board to write out the topics of the lessons, which in the best text-books, will be printed in different type. Require the topics to be numbered.

2. Send two, three or four members of the class to the board, without books, and give them topics to write out in full, in their own language.

3. To have a clear idea of the locality of the events, ask the situation of every place mentioned in the lesson, and have these questions answered by turn. Also ask the meaning of every difficult word in the lesson and explain those not understood.

4. By this time the topics will be written, or a part of them. Call the name (or number) of a member of the class, let him rise and read topic number one from the board, and then tell whatever he knows about it. If he cannot give the substance of it, don't recite it for him, but call another to recite it. Call another member, let him turn to the board and read a topic and recite as before, and so proceed through the lesson.

5. Lt those who wrote topics upon the board (2) read what they have written, to the class.

6. Let the member who wrote the topics (1) give a brief summary or recapitulation of the whole lesson, reading each topic from the board and giving the substance of it.

7. Criticise grammatical, orthographical and other errors in the writing upon the board.

8. If the teacher has larger histories and plenty of time left, he may select passages from them and pass the book to the members of the class to read selections treating more fully of the topics under consideration.

I also call attention from time to time to certain dates to be fixed in the memory permanently. I think that number should not exceed fifty. It they learn five hundred, they forget all. Have these fixed so firmly in their minds that when the date is called they can give the event. To supplement this work I have found monthly written examinations profitable.

If they have compositions, give them historical topics, as subjects.

This method seems to be in accordance with the laws of memory, to be practicable, and to make the study interesting. It will be found advisable to give very short lessons at first and increase gradually. The fault of most histories is that they contain too much. If there is much constitutional history, omit that, as it will not interest young scholars. It is profitable to ask them questions in regard to events, and give them a chance to think out an opinion not given in the book.

HENRY S. BAKER.

RIVER FALLS INSTITUTE.

HIGHER EDUCATION.

At the bottom of all difficulties in the higher education here—when we look at the whole country, and not at one or another favored locality—is the difficulty of obtaining first-rate teachers in large enough numbers. This statement will surprise people in favored localities, who see first-rate teachers starving, because they have nothing to do. It is laso the case, that the colleges are embarrassed, because they are filled up, every year, by boys and girls who have been poorly taught; and in the colleges themselves, except in favored circumstances, there is a drag, because teachers who can teach quite well what is in the text-books cannot teach much more. The eager wish everywhere of an ambitious and successful college president is to bring into his college more absolutely first-rate teachers, who will inspire the pupils with a passion to learn, and who will be able to meet that passion much more than half-way.

From the existence of this deficiency, it is easy enough to see that the country wants more and better college education, not less, as is sometimes suggested. It is true enough that we are probably wasting force by multiplying the number of such institutions. One good one is better than five poor ones. It is not certain, however, that it is true that one large one is better than five small ones. Still less is it certain, that a severe division of labor is the best arrangement among the professors. An accomplished tutor in an English college, who teaches four enthusiastic students Latin and Greek, is probably a better teacher than any man could be who taught a class of fifty, though he taught them Latin alone. The English tutor would not hesitate to add mathematics to the Latin and Greek, if the necessity existed; and, what is more, if he undertook to teach mathematics, he would teach well. So would any well-trained head master of a high school in America. It is only when the high school has been re-baptized, and is called a college, that there is any sensitiveness in announcing that the same person is expected to teach Latin in the morning, and algebra in the afternoon. The sensitsveness ought to be as to the much more critical question, whether this particular professor teaches badly or well.—*Old and New, for Dec.*

A GOOD EDUCATION.—To read the English language well, to write with dispatch a neat legible hand, and to be master of the first four rules of arithmetic, so as to dispose of at once, with accuracy, every question of figures which comes up in practice—I call this a good education. And if you add the ability to write pure, gramatical English, I regard it as an excellent education. These are the tools. You can do much with them, but you are hopeless without them. They are the foundation: and unless you begin with these, not with flashy attainments, a little geology, and all other ologies and osophies, are ostentatious rubbish.—*Edward Everett.*

TEACHERS frequently know that a pupil's attendance upon parties, sociables, etc., is injuring her health, and impeding her progress in school. The drowsy manner, the poorly learned lesson, the general distaste for school duties, are indications which never escape the notice of the able teacher. Too often the parents are blind to that which is clear to the keener eye of the teacher, and attribute to severe study the effects of protracted dissipation. While it is a very delicate duty, we think it *is* the duty of the teacher to interfere, to save the pupil from permanent injury and the class from demoralization.—*Chicago Teacher.*

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

DISTRICTS.

Question. (*a.*) A number of families with about 40 children, have settled in this vicinity, and we very much need a school. Is there any way in which we can organize a district and draw school money? There is no town organized yet.

(*b.*) We have just organized a new district; will you be kind enough to send us our share of school money? I will forward the census of children.

Answer. (*a.*) A district can be formed and a meeting called to organize, only by a town board.

(*b.*) Before school money can be drawn, a school must have been taught in the district, five months, *during the school year preceding* the annual apportionment.

Q. The town board set off a new district from our own and the district board endorsed the order, but the clerk had received only a verbal notice of the meeting; is the action legal?

A. By being present and consenting to the action, the board waived its right to insist on a written notice, and the action should not, for this reason alone, be set aside.

Q. The supervisors dissolved our joint district, 350 acres of which lay in Eldorado. In Friendship, we afterwards held an annual meeting and voted money as usual. Was this legal? (See copy of the order enclosed.)

A. If the intent of the supervisors was merely to detach so much of the district as was situate in Eldorado—and the order implies no more—your existence and powers as a district were not affected by the order. If they meant to "extinguish" the district, as provided in section 16, they would have proceeded to attach both parts of the district to other districts.

Q. Are supervisors obliged to meet and act on every petition for the formation or alteration of a school district?

A. They are not. Courtesy will dictate that they do thus meet and act, if the action asked for seems to be reasonable, or deserving of consideration; but whether it is of such a nature as to require a meeting, or any action at all, they are the judges.

Q. Is it absolutely essential that an order for the alteration of a district be recorded and be found of record in the town clerk's office to make such alteration valid?

A. It cannot be so held. The law on this point is to be considered directory. The order is to be recorded, for information, and for convenience. If by accident or oversight not so recorded, or if the record is lost, the fact of the formation or alteration of a district may be shown by parol evidence, if the fact be called in question. The map required to be kept in the town clerk's office might show the fact also. (See section 6.)

POWERS OF DISTRICTS.

Q. Can a district meeting determine that an acting treasurer is not a legal officer and declare the office vacant?

A. It can express an opinion to that effect, but it can determine nothing, having no judicial power.

Q. If the district cannot determine it, who can?

A. The board is empowered to make a quasi decision that the office is vacant, if they find facts to warrant it, because they are to fill any apparent vacancy or request the town clerk to do it, as the case may require. But the determination of the board is not a *judicial* determination, and the person appointed cannot enter upon the office, (unless the acting officer, if there be one, gives way,) without a judicial inquiry and decision, on a *quo warranto.*

Q. Can a district meeting determine and declare the contract with the teacher illegal and void, and proceed to close the school?

A. It has no power to make or repudiate a contract, except through its officers; and none to open or close the school. A district, as such, that is by its vote, in annual, or special meeting, can do only those things which are expressly provided for by statute, especially in section 19.

Q. If a district votes to have no school for two years, what can be done?

A. Such a vote is in defiance of the law; but the district thus refusing to do its duty, the board should provide for a school. (Sec. 19, sub-section *sixth.*) If, however, the district is too feeble to keep up a school, the town board should at once attach it to other districts, instead of letting it lie fallow.

Q. Can a district designate and obtain a site in a public park (there being plenty of room) the same as on other land?

A. The land being already owned by the public, and devoted to a certain public use, it cannot be appropriated to another public use without an act of the legislature.

Q. Is it lawful for a district to use school money received from the State to help build a school house?

A. It is not; it must be applied to the payment of teachers' wages and nothing else. (See section 59.)

Q. At a special meeting we voted an additional tax for school-house, but it appears the clerk wilfully neglected to notify three-fourths of the voters, as required by section 21. Was the vote a legal one, a majority of the voters being present?

A. The statute expressly says "no tax shall be voted at a special meeting unless three-fourths of the legal voters shall have been notified," etc. The vote was illegal and void. The clerk should be removed from office, a new one appointed, and the tax voted over again, in a legal manner.

Q. Can a district raise $25 to present to the builder of the school house, as an additional compensation?

A. It is not legal to raise money to give away. But if the builder had finished his contract faithfully and with due diligence, and it was made to appear that he was justly entitled to additional compensation, for reasons given, it would be right to make it, not as a gift, but for value received.

Q. Is an election by yeas and noes legal, if a ballot is called for and refused by the chairman?

A. The chairman will naturally do business in his own way, except as he is controlled by the will of the meeting, or by the law, or well established usage. If the meeting entered into an election by yeas and noes, on the call of the chairman, and acquiesced in the result, the election must be considered legal although some one called for a ballot and the chairman paid no attention to it. The meeting could of course have refused to go into an election by yeas and noes, if it had been so minded.

Q. A certain district has two school-houses, and until recently has kept up school alternately in each, but has decided not to do so any longer, to the great inconvenience of some of the families. Is there no remedy for this?

A. An appeal can be taken from the decision of the district meeting to the State Superintendent, and he may find reason to set it aside.

Q. If a district votes to have the school house on one side of the district, what can be done?

A. Such a decision can be set aside by the State Superintendent, on appeal.

Q. Who are legal voters in a school district—must there not be a certain length of residence, and must not the per son own some real estate in it?

A. All persons who are entitled to vote at an election for State and County officers, can vote at a district meeting, so soon as they take up a residence in the district, without waiting ten days as formerly. The law was amended by chap. 174, Gen. Laws 1872. It is not necessary that a voter own real estate in the district, or any where else.

Q. A deed of our site was promised, but is now refused; what can be done?

A. The promise can be enforced, if it can be proved, and the site has been improved. The proceeding would be by a bill in equity.

Q. Can a district admit or exclude certain non-resident pupils?

A. The district can simply vote on the general question, but not as to any particular pupil.

Q. Can a district exclude all such children if there is room and tuition is offered?

A. A district is not obliged to authorize or sanction this admission, if it does not choose to. In such a case as you mention it should not refuse.

SUB-DISTRICTS.

Q. Having adopted the "town system," must the taxes previously voted by the districts be collected, under the old law, from the taxable property of the several districts, or from the taxable property of the town, as one district?

A. It is proper that the taxes should be collected in the districts, as voted, and the schools provided for finished and the affairs of each district wound up, by its old officers.

Q. Our town, which has adopted the town system, having been set off from another town also under the town system, is it not requisite that the board of that town transfer to us, by deed, the the title to the school houses falling within our town?

A. As the first board of directors in the first instance becomes "invested" with the title to the school-houses, in the fact of the adoption of the town system, no transfer of title seems to be necessary. It may be held that the board of directors of the new town, in like manner becomes invested with the title, so soon as the town adopts the system, and the board organizes.

DISTRICT OFFICERS—DISTRICT BOARD.

Q. In case of a tie between the old treasurer and a new candidate, does the old one hold over?

A. Only ten days. A tie is no election. The board should fill the vacancy. If it fails to do so within the ten days, the town clerk is to do it.

Q. Our district treasurer was re-elected. The night he was elected his house was burnt, and, as he says, the district funds with it. Is he liable, and does his new bond cover the money burned?

These are questions for the courts. It would be held, I think, that he is liable, and that the old bond covers the funds, until ten days after the annual meeting. Perhaps the district would be justified in exempting him and his bondsmen from loss, if satisfied that the money was destroyed by unavoidable accident.

Q. The district voted to have a male teacher, but the board not finding one for the wages they would offer, hired a female. Are they responsible for her wages, or the district?

A. If the school goes on without objection the district will have to pay her, as in that case the act of the board would be held to be ratified. If the people refuse to recognize the school or to send to it, the case would be different.

Q. A year ago we adopted a series of readers, but having now a new school-house and a graded school, we wish to change and be up with the times; can we do so and evade the penalty?

A. There is no way to evade the penalty if suit is brought. You will have to take the risk of that.

Q. Can the board give the teacher permission to make up lost time on Saturdays?

A. They are not prohibited from doing this, but if any arrangement of the kind is made it should be put in the contract, or endorsed thereupon.

Q. Can a school board, without any vote of the district, incur the expense of legal advice?

A. This would be proper, if necessary, in any case where the district is sued; but in other cases it would be best to get instruction first.

Q. Can the board provide for a German school, part of the five months, out of the public money?

A. This is unlawful. All they can do is to have German taught one hour a day, if desired.

Q. Can the board authorize the teacher to close the school house door, say after ten minutes, and admit no pupil till recess?

A. The board can make rules, but would hardly be sustained in such a rule. In country districts especially, with variable time-pieces, such a rule would be too arbitrary, and provoke resentment. Let the school be made attractive rather than repellent, to cure tardiness.

THE SCHOOL-HOUSE.

Q. Is it not lawful for a board to open the school-house for singing and writing schools, at night, inasmuch as such things are to be regarded as "school purposes?"

A. It would usually perhaps be very ungracious for any voter to object to such use of the school house, under proper care and restrictions; but the law must be held to refer to free public schools only, and the decision of the Supreme Court to refer to the "purposes" of public and not of private schools; therefore if objection is made, it must be heeded.

Q. Our school-house was built in 1866, and built larger than necessary for the school, that meetings might be held in it; did not this way of building render the tax voted for it illegal?

A. It would have been illegal if any joint ownership between the district and some church corporation had been attempted; but there is probably no basis on which the legality of the tax can now be successfully called in question.

Q. If a school house is moved, in consequence of the vote of an illegal school meeting, what is the remedy?

A. Those who moved it are liable for all damage done and for the expense of moving the building back, if it is made to appear that district did not legally vote the change, and is opposed to it.

Q. The contract for building our school-house did not include seats; can the board buy them?

A. It may reasonably be held that it can obtain them, as "necessary appendages" (sec. 49), and present the bill for allowance, but it might be wise to get instructions first from a special meeting, and perhaps have a tax voted in advance, for the purpose.

THE TEACHER.

Q. My contract was for 4 months school, at $84.00, and at $1.05 a day. Now the clerk says I must make up the holidays. Is this right?

A. The presumption would seem to be that you were to teach 4 months at 20 days for a month (this is implied by the $1.05 a day) and the presumption would *not* be that you are to make up for holidays, as nothing was said about it, and the policy of the law is to close the schools on legal holidays.

Q. Should not the teacher require the signature of all the board before admitting foreign pupils?

A. This would not be necessary. An order signed by two or even one would be sufficient, *prima facie*. Of course the board would reverse any unwarranted action by a single member.

Q. Has a teacher a right to compel the pupils to sweep the school-house when the district has made no provision for it?

A. She has no such right, but where it has always been the custom, the teacher would naturally expect it to be continued.

Q. Can a teacher have some of the larger scholars hear some of the recitations of the smaller ones, if the school is crowded?

A. This is often done, and is not objectionable if all are willing; but the teacher would not be justified in requiring it. If objection is made to it, ask the board to employ some assistance, telling them the school is too large for one teacher.

Q. Can a parent dictate to the teacher as to the seat of his child at school?

A. He cannot; he may request a change as a favor.

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

Q. Under Chapter 342, Gen. Laws of 1874, can the county board unite the two superintendent districts of counties having two Senate districts, as Dane, Fond du Lac, Milwaukee and Rock? Some so claim.

A. As the law stands amended, by the act of 1874, these counties will form but one superintendent district each, when the terms of the present district superintendents expire, unless the several county boards previously *divide* said counties into two districts, under the law, as amended. In other words, these counties are now like other counties having over 15,000 inhabitants—they *may* have two superintendents, if the county board so directs, but will not otherwise.

THE world would be more happy if persons gave up more time to an intercourse of friendship.

DECISION BY THE SUPREME COURT.

The following correspondence explains itself:

JANESVILLE, Wis., Dec. 8, 1874.

HON. J. B. PRADT, *Asst. State Supt.:*

Dear Sir—In the October number of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, is published a synopsis of the decision of the Supreme Court, defining the responsibility of pupils to the parent, in the choice of branches of study which the pupils shall pursue in school.

For the information of many inquiring teachers, will you please publish the original decision of the court in full, with such comments thereon as are warranted by your wide experience in the rulings upon similar questions in the office of the State Superintendent.

Respectfully,

W. D. PARKER.

REPLY.

MADISON, Dec. 30, 1874.

DEAR MR. PARKER—I give the decision below, as you suggest, and follow it with the synopsis of its main points, as published by the reporter, Mr. Conover, and a few remarks on the general subject in volved.

THE DECISION.

ANNIE MORROW by JOHN MORROW, *Guardian, ad litem, Respondennt.*
vs.
JAMES WOOD, *Appellant.*

It is first claimed by the counsel for the defendant that the court below should have granted the motion for a non-suit because all the evidence showed that the criminal prosecution against the plaintiff for an alleged assault and battery committed by her upon the infant son of the defendant was never tried upon the merits but was discontinued on her motion and against the consent of the complainant in that action. It is insisted that before an action for malicious proscution can be maintained it must appear that the criminal prosecution has been determined in favor of the party prosecuted by a trial and acquittal, or the prosecution must have been discontinued against his consent.

We shall spend no time in the consideration of this point in the case for the reason that we are all fully agreed upon a question of law involved which is fundamental and underlies the case, and is entirely decisive of every other question arising upon the record. And as this is a question of some practical importance as affecting the duties and powers of teachers in our public schools, we deem it best to decide it in the present case. The facts upon which this question of law arises, as established on the trial, are briefly these:

About the 18th of November, 1872, the plaintiff, a qualified teacher under a contract with the district school board, commenced teaching a district school in Grant county. The defendant, an inhabitant of the district, sent his son, a boy about 12 years of age, to the school. The defendant wished his boy to study orthography, reading, writing, and also wished him to give particular attention to the study of arithmetic, for very satisfactory reasons which he gave on the trial. In addition to these studies the plaintiff at once required the child to also study geography and took pains to aid him in getting a book for that purpose. The father, on being informed of this, told his boy not to study geography but to attend to his other studies, and the teacher was promptly and fully advised of this wish of the parent, and also knew that the boy had been forbidden by his parent from taking that study at that time. But claiming and insisting that she had the right to direct and control the boy in respect to his studies, even as against his father's orders, she commanded him to take his geography and get his lesson. And when the boy refused to obey her and did as he was directed by his father, she resorted to force to compel obedience. All this occurred at the first week of school. The defendant institutes a criminal action before a justice for this assault and battery upon his son, which is the malicious prosecution complained of.

If the teacher had no right or authority to chastise the boy upon these facts for obeying his father, this action must fail. And whether she had or not the power to correct him is the question in this case,

for it is not pretended that the boy was otherwise disobedient, or was guilty of any misconduct or violated any rule or regulation adopted for the government of the school.

The circuit court in considering the relative rights and duties of parent and teacher among other things told the jury that when a parent sent his child to a district school he surrendered to the teacher such authority over the child as is necessary to the proper government of the school; the classification and instruction of the pupils, including what studies each scholar shall pursue—these studies being such as are required by law or are allowed to be taught in public schools. And the court added in this connection that a prudent teacher will always pay proper respect to the wishes of the parent in regard to what studies the child should take, but when the difference of view was irreconcilable on the subject, the views of the parent in that particular must yield to those of the teacher; and that the parent by the very act of sending his child to school impliedly undertakes to submit all questions in regard to study to the judgment of the teacher.

In our opinion there is a great and fatal error in this part of the charge—particularly when applied to the facts in this case—in asserting or assuming the law to be that upon an irreconcilable difference of views between the parent and teacher as to what studies the child shall pursue the authority of the teacher is paramount and controlling; and that she had the right to enforce obedience to her commands by corporal punishment. We do not think she had any such right or authority, and we can see no necessity for clothing the teacher with any such arbitrary power. We do not really understand that this is any recognized principle of law, nor do we think there is any rule of morals or social usage which gives the teacher an absolute right to prescribe and dictate what studies a child shall pursue regardless of the wishes and views of the parent, and as incident to this, gives the right to enforce obedience, even as against the orders of the parent. From what source does the teacher derive this authority? From what maxim or rule of the law of the land? Ordinarily it will be conceded the law gives the parent the exclusive right to govern and control the conduct of his minor children, and he has the right to enforce obedience to his commands by moderate and reasonable chastisement. And furthermore it is one of the earliest and most sacred duties taught to the child to honor and obey its parents. The situation of the child is truly lamentable if the condition of the law is that he is liable to be punished by his parent for disobeying his orders in regard to his studies, and the teacher may lawfully chastise him for not disobeying his parent in that particular. And yet this was the precise dilemma in which the defendant's boy was placed by the asserted authority on the part of parent and teacher.

Now we can see no reason whatever for denying to the father the right to direct what studies included in the prescribed course his child shall take. He is as likely to know the health, temperament, aptitude, and deficiencies of his child as the teacher, and how long he can send him to school. All these matters ought to be considered in determining the question what particular studies the child should pursue at a given term. And when the parent's wishes are reasonable, as they seem to have been in the present case, and the teacher by regarding them could in no way have been embarrassed, her conduct in not respecting the orders given the boy, was unjustifiable. If she had allowed the child to obey the commands of his father it could not possibly have conflicted with the efficiency or good order or well being of the school. The parent did not propose to interfere with the gradation or classification of the school, or with any of its rules and regulations further than to assert his right to direct what studies his boy should pursue that winter. And it seems to us a most unreasonable claim on the part of the teacher to say the parent has not that right, and further to insist that she was justified in punishing the child for obeying the or-

ders of his father rather than her own. Whence again, we enquire, did the teacher desire this exclusive and paramount authority over the child and the right to direct his studies contrary to the wish of the father? It seems to us, it is idle to say the parent by sending his child to school impliedly clothes the teacher with that power in a case where the parent expressly reserves the right to himself and refuses to submit to the judgment of the teacher the question as to what studies his boy shall pursue. We do not intend to lay down any rule which will interfere with any reasonable regulation adopted for the management and government of the public schools, or which will operate against their efficiency and usefulness. Certain studies are required to be taught in the public schools by statute. The rights of one pupil must be so exercised undoubtedly as not to prejudice the equal rights of others. But the parent has the right to make a reasonable selection from the prescribed studies for his child to pursue, and this cannot possibly conflict with the equal rights of other pupils. In the present case the defendant did not insist that his child should take any study outside the prescribed course. But considering that the study of geography was less necessary for his boy at that time than some other branches, he desired him to devote all his time to orthography, reading, writing, and arithmetic. The father stated that he thought these studies were enough for the child to take, and he said he was anxious the boy should obtain a good knowledge of arithmetic, in order that he might assist in keeping accounts. He wished to exercise some control over the education of his son, and it is impossible to say that the choice of studies which he made was unreasonable or inconsistent with the welfare and best interest of his offspring. And how it will result disastrously to the proper discipline, efficiency and well being of the common schools to concede this paramount right to the parent to make a reasonable choice from the studies in the prescribed course which his child shall pursue, is a proposition we cannot understand. The counsel for the plaintiff so insist in their argument, but as we think without warrant for the position. It is unreasonable to suppose any scholar who attends school can or will study all the branches taught in them. From the nature of the case some choice must be made and some discretion be exercised as to the studies which the different pupils shall pursue. The parent is quite as likely to make a nice and judicious selection as the teacher. At all events in case of a difference of opinion between the parent and teacher upon the subject, we see no reason for holding that the views of the teacher must prevail, and that she has the right to compel obedience to her orders by inflicting corporal punishment upon the pupil.

The statute gives the school board power to make all needful rules and regulations for the organization, gradation and government of the school, and power to suspend any pupil from the privileges of the school for non-compliance with the rules established by them or by the teacher with their consent, and it is not proposed to throw any obstacle in the way of the furtherance of these duties. But these powers and duties can be well fulfilled without denying to the parent all right to control the education of his children.

These views are decisive of this case. Under the circumstances the plaintiff had no right to punish the boy for obedience to the commands of his father in respect to the study of geography. She entirely exceeded any authority which the law gave her, and the assault upon the child was unjustifiable.

For these reasons the judgment of the circuit court must be reversed and a new trial ordered.

SYNOPSIS OF THE DECISION.

1. Where a father had directed his child, in attendance upon a public school in this State, to pursue only certain studies selected by the father from those required or permitted by law to be taught in such school, and actually taught therein, and had forbidden the child to pursue a certain other study, and this fact was known

to the teacher of the school, such teacher was not authorized to *inflict corporal punishment* upon the child for the purpose of compelling it to pursue the study so forbidden by the father.

2. Where the teacher inflicted corporal punishment in such a case, and the father caused her to be prosected as for an assault and battery upon the child, he was not liable to the teacher as for a malicious prosecution.

* * * * * *

4. Our statutes give the school board in each district power to make all needful rules and regulations for the organization, gradation and government of the school, and to *suspend* any pupil from its privileges for non-compliance with the reasonable rules established by the board, or by the teacher with its consent; and this decision is not designed to interfere with the performance of these duties.

REMARKS.

The third point made by the court is omitted, as being upon a question of law not of interest to teachers.

It will be gathered upon the first point made that the court decides it to be the law that a teacher in a public school cannot control the studies of a pupil if its father chooses, within the limitations named, to determine the matter himself.

Questions of precisely the same nature have not, within my experience, been sent to this office for official opinion, and such a question would not come before it on appeal. When it has been asked whether the pupil is obliged to submit to the rule of the school that certain classes shall at certain times engage in certain prescribed exercises, as for instance writing compositions, practising upon the elementary sounds, etc., the question has been answered in the affirmative; and to the further question whether the parent may exempt his child from obedience to such rules, the reply has been in the negative. For it has been held that the teacher must be allowed, in subordination of course to the laws and to the authority of the school board, to carry on the work of the school without dictation or interference on the part of individual residents in the district, whether parents or otherwise; and that while respectful attention should be given to any reasonable request of a parent as to the exemption of a child from a particular rule or exercise, to admit his right to dictate in the matter would introduce such a conflict of authority as would be subversive of the proper discipline and government of the school.

The case adjudicated is somewhat different. The law prescribes that certain branches shall be taught, in the public schools; not, I should say, for the purpose of giving parents an opportunity to select therefrom, for their children, but as the proper and essential branches of a common school education; and the teacher, in contracting to teach the school, is bound to teach these branches and not others in their place, or to their neglect. The fair presumption I should have said is, that the law intends that they are to be taught to all pupils—not all at once of course, to youngest and oldest alike, but to all in due place and degree. Now when a pupil is in that department or class, or in other words has arrived at that degree of advancement where it is proper and in accordance with the grade and classification of the school for him to take a certain study, while the parent should of course be permitted to ask as a favor that a child for reasons given may be exempted from a particular study for the time being, it seems incompatible not only with the proper discipline and success of the public schools but with the objects for which they are established, that the law governing in the matter should be such as to allow that each parent may diminish at pleasure the studies to be pursued by the child. If the right exists as to one study it exists as to more, and if a number of pupils claim exemption, by the order or permission of parents, from various studies, on the plea of paying more attention to others, then the natural result would be, that as they must ordinarily recite in the organized classes in the studies which they do pursue, they will have idle time on their hands, the effect of which is not hard to

predict. It is quite obvious I think from this and from other considerations, that such an outside right of exemption from study must interfere with the discipline and good order of the school.

But there is another aspect in which the matter is to be viewed. While I would not contend for compulsory attendance upon the public schools, yet the drift of modern opinion and legislation is to the effect that the State must require, as a measure of self-preservation, that all children and youth receive at least a fair elementary education. To this end the State provides schools, and though she may not compel children to attend these schools, she may require that they shall in some way be properly instructed. Now if the law allows the parent to exempt the child in the school from certain studies, it allows him so far to interfere with what the law itself elsewhere prescribes, or should prescribe, in order to accomplish its end. If the exemption may be claimed temporarily, it may be claimed permanently.

A very respectable teacher, principal of a large graded school, has just called upon me and asked what he should do in the case of several large pupils in his department who claimed exemption from certain studies on this plea of paying more attention to others, remarking that the effect was bad, first upon the school, and in the second place upon themselves, and that the board would not help him. I was obliged to tell him that his hands were tied.

The teacher, as I understand the matter, is clothed with no arbitrary power, but is the agent of the school authorities, and is responsible to them and not to the individual parent. There is no privity of contract between the teacher and parent. Of course I do not mean that the teacher is not amenable for any misconduct or abuse of authority, whether in the school room or out.

Looking at the subject on these general grounds, and from the several standpoints of teacher, parent and school officers, I should have held with the circuit court, that the teacher, not as an individual, but as the representative of the school authorities, is justified in requiring the pupil to attend to the usual studies of his class, and that if exemption is granted in any special case, it should be, not at the demand of the parent as a right, but with the consent of the board. And it is therefore unfortunate that the issue came in the particular form in which it did before the courts. This, of course, the courts could not control. But if the teacher, who very likely was young and inexperienced, had been thoughtful enough to refer the matter to the board, and the board had sustained the position that all pupils, must take all the studies of the class unless exempted on request of the parent, as a favor, the question of paramount authority would have been raised in a more satisfactory way, and the judgment of the higher court would have covered a broader ground.

The court further held that a pupil may be suspended by the board for noncompliance with the rules of the school, and pointed out that the decision rendered does not interfere with the execution of this law. The statute also allows expulsion for persistent disobedience. It is presumed that the statute is not to be interpreted as precluding the infliction of any other punishment, or the enforcement of any rules, other than those adopted by the board, or by the teacher with their consent. As a matter of fact, the board, in the country districts, most frequently makes no rules, and gives no formal consent to those made by the teacher. In other words, it simply neglects to act in the matter at all, but hires the teacher, puts her in the school-room, perhaps tells the scholars they "must mind," and leaves her to steer her way as best she can by the light of the school code, if there is one to be had, and the traditional usages to which she has been accustomed.

This decision will do much good in one way at least: it will call attention to the need of specific rules for the guidance of both teacher and pupil, and of a clearer understanding of the rights, the duties and the liabilities of parents, pupils,

teachers and school officers. But more than this—the law being determined as indicated, in regard to the power of the parent, the question fairly arises whether some further legislation is not needed. This is a question upon which there is likely to be difference of opinion, but we are all aware that this is a a transitional period in all matters of social science, and not least so in all questions connected with public education.

Very truly yours,

J. B. PRADT.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

DE NOBIS.

We have never been troubled in conscience by the thought that we were not giving to our subscribers the worth of their money. Instead, however, of blowing a trumpet to proclaim our own merits, we have preferred to trust their recognition to the intelligence of our readers, feeling sure that if we did good work it would be appreciated.

We are glad to say that many evidences of such appreciation in our own State have come to cheer us; but here is one from a distance that justifies the serenity of the aforesaid editorial conscience, and that we feel impelled to quote. Says the *Maine Journal of Education:*

"THE WISCONSIN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION has become one of the foremost of the northwestern journals. No journal comes to us having as much matter for the price. The teachers of the west are alive to their wants and needs, and they express their thoughts a little more directly upon the subjects which they write about, than do our eastern teachers. * * * Among many articles of interest we select as the titles of some which are as interesting to us as to them, as follows: 'Are *Wisconsin* teachers fitted for their business?' Who will give us an article on the question whether *Maine* teachers are fitted for their business? Can any question affect our State more than this, 'What the town system would do for us'?" etc.

While in this egoistic (or rather *nosistic*) line we might add that as we begin a new editorial year our only regrets for the past one are that it gave us so few hours from multiform official duties to devote to the JOURNAL. We have done the best we could under the circumstances, and that we have at least not failed, we think the finished volume of 1874 bears some witness. We confidently hope, however, to make the succeeding one still better.

With this little "toot" we hang up our horn for another year and settle down cheerfully to our work.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENCY.

For the past twelve years, that is ever since its adoption, the county superintendency has met with more or less opposition, both among the people at large and their representatives in the legislature. This opposition has not been widespread or very serious, but enough and persistent enough to seem like a menace to the perpetuity of the system. It will show itself again, no doubt, in the legislature about to assemble; and as reform is a popular catch-word, and as continual dropping wears even a stone, it is well for the friends of the system to be prepared.

The opposition to the system arises mainly from dissatisfaction with its working, and is partly reasonable, but for the most part unreasonable—unreasonable in asking its abolition instead of seeking the cure of defects. In the first place the method of filling the office is not a happy one. Strictly governmental offices must be elective. A county clerk or treasurer, who is elected by the usual political machinery, enters upon his office, and that usually is the end of it. The duties to be performed are simply of a clerical and business character. But the functions of so important a school officer as a county superintendent, if properly apprehended and performed, are of a much more complex and delicate character. The office is not one that should become a football for politicians. In Pennsylvania it is filled without any reference to politics, by the appointment

of the town boards of school directors, subject to the approval of the State Superintendent, and the plan, as we know from personal observation, works well. Pennsylvania has the "town system." In Minnesota, which like Wisconsin is so unfortunate as to have the single district system, the county superintendent is appointed by the county board. This separates the office measurably from politics. The incumbent is not even required to be a resident of the county, but to be eligible must hold a proper certificate. Now this looks sensible, and as if the superintendent were expected to be the head teacher and school man of the county, elected because of his peculiar fitness for the place. The plan is reported to work well in our sister state. A similar plan would work much better here than our present one. We should say that as the State Superintendent now fills vacancies (and his appointments so far as we know have been satisfactory), so it would be well to have appointments by the county board subject to his approval, and a commission issue from his office. This would not only be a check upon improper appointments, which might occur, though seldom, but would make the office more respectable and therefore more respected. A county superintendency is radically defective as a system, if in carrying it out we have no assurance of getting the right man in the right place. A very large share of the dissatisfaction with the system that has been manifested in this state could be traced back to unfit elections, and these in turn almost inevitably result, from time to time, from our method of filling the office. The constant change of the incumbent is also a great drawback to the usefulness of the office.

But aside from all this, the compensation paid has much to do with the matter. If it is meager, a man thoroughly fitted for the place is not likely either to want it or accept it if tendered to him. If there are exceptions to this, still the incumbent not only feels at liberty, but is perhaps compelled to devote a portion of his time to something else. This gives dissatisfaction; but if the people are only willing to half pay a competent man, they must expect him to devote half his time to something else—to his school, his patients, his clients, his parish or his farm. This is a bad arrangement for all concerned. Both patients and schools are likely to be neglected. Common sense dictates that first of all a suitable man be elected, wherever he can be found; that he be kept in the place; that he be suitably paid for his services, and then expected to give his time, his energies, his undivided interest to the work. This done, and we should have no complaint except from the unreasoning, and constitutional grumblers. With a corps of such superintendents all over the state, and there is no good reason why we should not have them, the work of public education would improve notably everywhere, and most of the complaints made would disappear.

But a good deal of the dissatisfaction manifested arises from a lack of personal and local supervision of the schools. Under the town superintendency it often happened with a faithful and competent superintendent that the schools were not only frequently and systematically visited, but to their manifest advantage. Teachers, pupils and parents all felt the presence and influence of a supervising officer. Such towns feel the want of this keenly. But a county superintendent cannot be ubiquitous; and no sensible person can suppose that his principal business should be to visit the individual schools If he attempts it he cannot do it as much as it ought to he done, and will at the same time necessarily neglect some of his more appropriate business. The truth is, our public school work needs both general and local supervision. That a county superintendent cannot fully supply both, is no fault of the system, but is simply due to the fact that a county superintendent no more than any other man, can ignore the limitations of time and space, and if we are too short-sighted and penurious to provide what the schools need, we have only ourselves to blame. The town superintendency ought not to have been abolished. The

plea was that the people would not submit to the expense of both. If this was true then, it may not be true now.

The argument that we cannot afford both town and county supervision, is like that of the man who says he cannot afford his horse oats if he gives him hay, and cannot afford the hay if he gives him oats, when the fact is that the animal will not thrive and do his work well, unless he has a due measure of both; that is, if his food is too diffused or too concentrated. So with our school work—it must have both a general and a local supervision, and there is no way to get it except to pay for it, as we do for other needed work. And we know of nothing in which money can be more profitably expended for the public good. In business matters of an extensive character, employing many persons, the need of supervision is well understood. A well-managed railroad is under constant, careful and varied supervision, as a whole, in its sections, and down to all the details of labor.

We say then to every friend of the public schools: if a lack of local supervision is complained of, admit the fact, and urge that it should be supplied in the best possible manner. If it is claimed that it will be quite expensive to have both town and county superintendents, admit that too, but contend that it will be money well and wisely expended, even if we double the average salaries of the county superintendents and at the same time secure competent men, and then pay town superintendents also liberally for such work as they alone can perform. Under such a policy, with such a system of appointment as would put only competent men in oversight of the schools, coupled with the policy of having only competent teachers, and we deem it a very moderate assertion to say that in ten years the annual increase of material wealth in the state would be doubled, to say nothing of the vastly more important but quite incalculable advancement that would be made in intellectual and moral gain; and this enlarged expenditure, which many ould look upon as extravagant, at first, would soon come to be regarded as the wisest and most fruitful of all public expenditures.

Since writing the foregoing paragraphs we have listened to an excellent paper on the subject, read before the Association by Mr. Kirwan, superintendent of Manitowoc county, which urges this change in the manner of filling the county superintendency, and discusses the whole subject in a very full and satisfactory manner. We hope to have the paper for publication.

FREE TOWN HIGH SCHOOLS.

At the recent session of the State Teachers' Association, in this city, Superintendent Searing, President Bascom, and President Albee were the committee to which the subject of Intermediate Schools was finally referred. Their report, which was unanimously and heartily adopted by the Association, contained two distinct recommendations:

1. A system of Town High Schools.
2. An organic connection between the State Normal Schools and the University.

The first was the chief recommendation of a previous report, prepared and read by Superintendent Searing; the latter was a recommendation of a paper prepared and previously read by Hon. W. H. Chandler. Both papers had excited unusual interest and met general approval.

The State will be widely interested in learning the details of each plan. We are enabled to give the chief features of the system of Free Town High Schools, which will be recommended in the forthcoming report of the State Superintendent, and presented for the consideration and approval of the legislature. The plan provides:

1st. That a town, or two or more adjoining towns, may establish and maintain a High School, the accommodations for which, and also one-half the cost of instruction in which shall be provided for by the town or towns, from the proceeds of a common tax, or by such tax supplemented by private contributions, or wholly by private contributions.

2d. That to every town establishing and maintaining such school for at least a term of ten weeks in any one year, the State shall give one-half the actual cost of instruction in such school, provided, however, that this donation from the State to any one school in any one year, shall not exceed $500.

3d. That the town or towns make special appropriation for payment of one-half of the cost of said instruction, and that such appropriation be exclusive of the amounts required by law for common school purposes.

4th. That tuition shall be free to all pupils admitted from the town or towns making such appropriation.

5th. That no funds or proceeds of the real estate of an Academy or incorporated institution of learning, surrendered or transferred to towns for educational purposes, shall be considered as part of the appropriation made by towns.

6th. That the law shall provide strict regulations for obtaining returns from these schools, for making payment of State aid to them, and also respecting the grade of admission thereto.

7th. That the Principal of each town High School must hold either a first grade County certificate, a State certificate, or diploma from one of the State Normal Schools or from the State University.

The above plan, in substance, went into operation less than two years ago in the State of Maine, and with a result truly surprising. Within a single year nearly one-third of all the towns in the State had established these schools, and generally with remarkable satisfaction and success. The number of different schools reported in 1873 was 150; the number of students in attendance, 10,286; amount of money appropriated by vote of towns, $83,219; amount paid from State treasury, $29,-134.79.

The State Superintendent, Hon. Warren Johnson, says in his last annual report: "It will be seen that only seventeen towns obtained the maximum gratuity of the State, namely, $500, amounting to $8,500, while the high schools of these same towns cost $41,457. Hence it appears that nearly three-quarters of the awards by the State to free high schools were distributed to country towns. That is, the privileges for higher culture were carried out into the producing sections of tha State, rather than obliging the latter to seek the rich centers for educational facilities not otherwise attainable." * *

"The statistics presented afford the best and most convincing proof in regard to the success of this new element in our public school system, as also the most powerful argument for its continuance. In addition to these 'numerical' facts, the numerous epistolary expressions received at this department, and the commendatory statements made by parents, whose children have enjoyed the privileges thus afforded, are simply eloquent pleadings in favor of free high schools."

A NORMAL COLLEGE AT THE UNIVERSITY.

What one of the Madison dailies considers the most important action of the Association was the adoption of the Report of the Committee on Intermediate Schools. That this action *is* one of much significance will be apparent from the following facts: (1.) The position of the men composing the committee—the State Superintendent, the President of the University, and the President of the Oshkosh Normal School. (2.) The unanimous recommendation by the committee, and the unanimous approval by the convention, of a new grade of public schools. (3.) The like recommendation and approval of an organic connection of the Normal Schools with the University, by the establishment in that of a Normal College,—a recommendation originating with a distinguished member of the Normal Board.

The details of this latter important plan of unification are not yet perfected, but the plan in its general features is indorsed by several members of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools, including the President. We are much mistaken if this scheme, when fully understood by the public, will not go far to prove that a

most liberal and catholic spirit influences the men controlling the great educational trusts of the State; that their aims are not to build up this or that interest at the expense of others, but to build for the general strength and honor of the State. That this is the spirit by which they are moved we of a certainty know, and we believe that coming events will signally illustrate it.

Uniform System of Teachers' Examinations for the State.

The following from the *Madison Daily Democrat* of January 1st, will show the result of the first afternoon's session of the recent Convention of County and City Superintendents:

Few subjects are of more importance to the educational interests of the State than that looking to the establishment of a uniform system of Teacher's Examinations. A definite plan for securing such uniformity has been matured and drawn up by Superintendent Searing, and was presented by him for the consideration of the County Superintendents of the State, at their late meeting. After thorough discussion the plan, substantially as submitted, was unanimously adopted by the Convention. It strikes us as an excellent one, and we believe it will commend itself to the favorable consideration of the public generally. Whatever legislation is necessary to enable it to be carried into effect will, we trust, be readily granted. The plan provides:

1st. That the State Superintendent shall furnish uniform sets of questions for use by County Superintendents (in principal and supplementary examinations), to be sent to them under seal, as needed.

2d. That the number of examination districts in each county shall be made as few as possible, consistent with reasonable convenience. These are in many instances unnecessarily numerous.

3d. That the first and succeeding examinations, held semi-annually in the various inspection districts of the counties, shall be held respectively on the same days throughout the State, and shall be conducted strictly in accordance with regulations furnished by the Department.

4th. That the papers written by the candidates shall be marked by the Superintendents according to specific rules—also furnished by the Department.

5th. That each Co. Superintendent shall determine the minimum precentage of successful attainment in his own county, under the advice of the State Superintendent.

6th. That all papers written by every applicant shall be preserved by the County Superintendent at least one year, and be subject during that time to the order of the State Superintendent.

7th. That the report of each examination shall be forwarded as soon as possible after its close to the Department, and there recorded; each report to contain simply the whole number examined, the number of successful applicants in each grade, and the average standing of such in each grade.

8th. That the questions for the examinations, the regulations by which the examinations shall be conducted, and the rules for marking the results, shall be prepared by a board of three competent persons annually appointed by the State Superintendent.

In regard to the same subject the State Teachers' Association made a vigorous expression in a resolution, &c., offered by Prof. Parker, President elect of the Fourth Normal School, and adopted by an almost unanimous vote, as follows:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this association that the State Suprerintendent should put himself in vital relations to County Superintendents with a view, 1st, to ensure examinations regularly held, and of a more nearly uniform character; 2d, to stimulate and direct the general educational agitation in all the counties of the State.

MEMORANDA.—A nearly uniform examination throughout the State. All original papers—questions and answers—to be sent to the State department and there preserved during the continuance in force of certificates granted thereon. To direct and stimulate the educational agitation, in holding institutes of County Superintendents, and to see that superintendents personally participate in holding teachers' institutes according to law; to effect unity of purpose among County Superintendents, teachers and people.

THE TEXT-BOOK QUESTION.

The recent convention of County Superintendents devoted an entire afternoon to the discussion of the Text-book Question. We feel safe in saying that at least some phases of this important question were never before so fully and ably discussed by any body of Superintendents or Teachers in the State. When night at length put an end to the conference, the following resolutions, offered by Superintendent Guernsey, of Grant county, were adopted by a hearty and all but unanimous vote:

Resolved, That the law should require a uniformity of text-books in schools of the same town.

Resolved, That each town should be required to purchase the books needed for the schools of the town, and should be allowed to loan the books free to pupils, or at a rental, or to sell them at cost to the patrons of the schools.

We also take pleasure in saying that a large majority of the superintendents and teachers who participated in the discussion appeared decidedly to favor the absolute freedom of text-books, under certain strict regulations as to the care of them, and liability for loss or unnecessary injury.

The fact that the schools are improperly termed "free," when the unavoidable annual cost of books to the individual is, on the average, several times the amount given by the State to secure free tuition for him, was clearly brought out in the discussion, and recognized as unquestionable.

The forthcoming Annual Report of the State Superintendent will contain a full exposition of the wisdom of town uniformity, and also the advantages of free text-books, the success of the free plan in other States, &c.

The portion of the Report devoted to this subject it was our intention to print in the present number of the JOURNAL, but we find it much too voluminous for the space at command, and must defer it until next month.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

In the discussion following the excellent paper of Prof. Viebahn, "Educational Needs of the State," there was made manifest a feeling of decided opposition to the adoption by Wisconsin, for the present at least, of a compulsory educational law.

The State Superintendent opened the discussion by calling special attention to the recommendation of such a law, in the paper just read. He said that this subject was a source of some embarrassment to him. His predecessor in office had recommended such a law. It was receiving the adoption of one State after another. Theoretically the arguments for the law were good. He had always recognized their force, and would be glad to see the State enact and enforce such a law. But would a compulsory law *be* enforced? Were the people ready for it? Would it not be a dead letter upon the statute books, and hence worse than no law? He deprecated the existence of any law not respected and enforced, and entertained grave doubts whether a compulsory law in Wisconsin would prove more effective than in Michigan.

He referred to a letter he had just received from the State Superintendent of Michigan, in which that officer declared, respecting the law, that "he had yet to learn of a single instance of its enforcement" in that State, and that "it stood a *dead letter* on the statute books," etc. Yet Michigan had tried it under favorable circumstances. Her school system was better than ours, her general enlightenment and interest in education were acknowledged. The law itself was simple, as good as any that had come under his knowledge, was easily enforced if there was any disposition to enforce it. Moreover, it had been "hailed" with great satisfaction by the people of the State. Yet after four years' trial here was the evidence, from the best source, of its total and signal failure.

President Bascom thought the Michigan law was unwisely harsh in its provisions, and hence was not enforced. He believed in the principle of compulsion; believed that if the law compelled the rich men to support free schools, it should compel the poor man to have his children educated therein. Yet laws ought not to be enacted which will not be inforced.

Superintendent McAllister, of Milwaukee, was more strongly in favor of compulsory education five years ago than at present. A compulsory law would be disastrous in Milwaukee. A truant law, however, might be beneficial.

Other speakers commended a truant law as wiser than a general compulsory law, and thought that, rather than to enact the latter, it would be wiser to make the schools more attractive and efficient.

State Superintendent Hosford, of Michigan, said, soon after the passage of the compulsory law, "I do not remember that any law bearing upon the school interests of the State was ever received with such universal favor as this one. The press, without distinction of party, very generally commend it, and very few of the people are heard to speak against it."

The following is the letter above referred to, from the State Superintendent of Michigan, respecting the working of the compulsory school law in that state:

LANSING, Dec. 19, 1874.

Hon. Edward Searing, Madison, Wis.

DEAR SIR:—Your favor of the 11th inst., (calling for my impressions respecting the general working of the "compulsory school law" in Michigan) is before me, and in response I will say briefly, that the "act to compel children to attend school" was approved by our legislature, April 15th, 1871, and became operative on the first Monday of September following. I have yet to learn of a single instance of its enforcement in any locality. Hence the ready inference is that the people are not ready for it, and it stands a "*dead letter*" on the statute books, to be vitalized or its spirit materialized, like Katie King's, in the "good time coming."

A disposition on the part of school officers to ignore the law everywhere prevails, and this statement is most fully confirmed by the testimony of the County Superintendents of schools throughout the State.

It is true that there has been a gradual increase in the per centage of attendance as reported, since the enactment of the compulsory law. Whether this should be attributed more to the *very existence* of the law, than to the healthy work as done by the County Superintendents of schools is a question.

There are many, and among the many some prominent educators, as you are aware, who hold the opinion that any compulsory law requiring the attendance of children at school is not in harmony with our free school system, which is based upon the doctrine that the taxable property of the State shall educate its children for the good of the state. As we have the compulsory assessment, and the compulsory collection of a tax yielding millions of dollars which are annually expended for the support of the public schools, should not these, for whom this great expenditure is made, be compelled to avail themselves of it?

Very respectfully yours,

DANIEL B. BRIGGS, Sup't.

DETROIT MEETING, NAT. ED. ASSOCIATION.

The volume of "Proceedings" of the Detroit Meeting of the N. E. A. is just published. Having been present at the meeting and having considered the papers and discussions of great value, I agreed to take 20 copies of the volume of "Proceedings," when published, with the view of obtaining them at the lowest possible rates for the benefit of teachers in this State. The price is $1.75 per volume, $1.50 for ten, $1.25 for twenty or more. The expressage on the books from Worcester, Mass., will be from five to ten cents per copy,—making the actual cost here, say $1.35 per copy, at which price I will deliver the volume at my office; or for $1.45 will send it by mail, postage paid, to any teacher or school library in this State.

The volume is larger than the last one. It contains much of the best wisdom of many of the wisest and ablest educational men of the country. I can name several papers any one of which is worth more than the price of the book.

There ought to be at least fifty teachers in Wisconsin desiring to purchase this volume. Nay, there are at least fifty teachers in the State who *cannot afford to be without it.* Feeling sure of this, and wishing to facilitate its circulation by making it known, diminishing its cost, and rendering it easily accessible, I cheerfully agreed to take the number of copies mentioned. Twice or thrice this number will be obtained and furnished on the same terms, if the demand should require it. I will promptly fill all orders.

EDWARD SEARING.

THE AGASSIZ MEMORIAL FUND, as reported by the treasurer, has reached the amount of nearly or quite $10,000, coming it is estimated, from nearly 90,000 contributors. Wisconsin has sent $226; Illinois, $1,982. We can give more, if we try.

The fund is to be kept open permanently for contributions. Hon. Newton Bateman, superintendent of Illinois, well remarks: "I am sure that the indirect results of the movement have been exceedingly valuable, results that would have been cheaply secured by the expenditure of many times the amount of time, money and labor that the whole enterprise has cost."

Contributions may be sent as heretofore, to Jas. M. Barnard, Treasurer, 13 Exchange Street, Boston.

He acknowledges the receipt of the following sums from Wisconsin:

Alabama, 50 cts.; Alma, $1.50; Appleton (University), $21; Baraboo, $6; Dist. No. 6, 75 cts.; Bay View, 60 cts.; Belmont, 25 cts.; Christiana, $1.50; Deerfield, $2; Ettrick (Hegg school), $3.75; Fountain City, $8; Horicon, $5.75; Krogville, 90 cts.; La Crosse, $46.18; Millsville, $1; Oshkosh, (Normal School), $32; Platteville, (Normal School), $10; Racine, $21; Raymond, $1.80; Rock county, $3.25; Stoughton $12.75; Sugar Grove, 50 cents; Verona, $1.65; Waupaca, $2.26; Whitewater (Normal School) $38.80.—Total, $226.05.

THE *Connecticut School Journal* for December comes to us with an important valedictory announcement, informing its readers that with this number the separate existence of the *Journal* ceases, and that in common with the other State journals published in New England, it becomes merged in a new paper, *The New England Journal of Education*. This is to be a *weekly*, and under the management of Hon. Thomas W. Bicknell, of Rhode Island, who resigns the office of State Superintendent of Instruction to take charge of the paper. The managing editors say in their valedictory:

"The necessity of a *weekly* educational paper in these stirring times has been impressively felt. There has been a growing conviction that New England ought to be represented in the educational field by *one strong, live* paper. To that end it has been found desirable to *unite* the interest and energies of educators in a paper whose influence shall be more powerfully and widely felt than that of the local school journals could reasonably be expected to be."

We shall miss the familiar features of the old *Connecticut Journal*, but as its wisdom is to find a resurrection in a form and company so superior we say farewell to the old with less regret, and shall hail the advent of the new journal with our warmest welcome and best wishes.

THE POWER OF EXPRESSION.—Having a chance hour the other day at the Normal School in Whitewater, we found the students assembled for their monthly round of public "rhetorical exercises." This we hailed as a good omen, because we deem it one of the important functions of a Normal School to cultivate the power of expression. Upon this depends largely the success and usefulness of the teacher. He may understand a subject well, and have a good idea of the proper method of its presentation, and yet seriously fail as a teacher, for want of facility and versatility in the art of presenting topics, and adapting his instructions to minds of different grades. We take it for granted, therefore, that in addition to these public exercises—which were very creditable, on the day we allude to, to all who took a part—and in addition to all other formal exercises, much attention is given to each pupil's habit and special deficiencies in this matter, in his daily recitations, and in his written recitations, or examinations and reviews.

As germane to the subject, we make some extracts, on a former page, from the monthly editorial article on education in the November number of the *Atlantic*, which "calls attention to a method of instruction [in the education of girls] in great favor in Paris;" and illustrates what results may be reached by a persist-

ent method in cultivating the power to express thought. The method of instructions described is not likely to be imitated, but teachers may take a hint from it as to the importance of so training pupils, in some way, that they shall be able to tell clearly what they know.

HAZEL GREEN, Nov. 8, 1874.

Messrs. SEARING & PRADT—*Dear Sirs:*—In common with several other teachers of this locality, I desire to know where one can procure a good work upon Civil Government, with a comprehensive analysis of the Constitution of the United States and Wisconsin. Will you, through the columns of your excellent journal, inform us? S. A. HARPER.

ANSWER.—No one book contains both. Townsend's Analysis of the Constitution of the United States, published by Ivison, Blakeman and Taylor; Andrews', by Wilson, Hinkle & Co., and Hart's, by Eldredge & Bro., Philadelphia, are all works of merit, and suited to different purposes. Townsend's work is very full, systematic and exhaustive; Andrews' less comprehensive but very instructive; Hart's embraces much in a small compass, and costs 60 cents. Andrews' costs $1.13–$1.50. Townsend's work is more expensive, and there is a chart to accompany it, if desired. The only schoolbook on the Constitution of the State of Wisconsin, is that by A. O. Wright, late County Superintendent of Juneau county. It is published by Atwood & Culver, Madison, Wis., costs 50 cents—less by the dozen—and is admirably done. The book issued from the office of the State Superintendent contains both the constitutions, with questions, but no analysis or explanation of either. A teacher needs something more than this. [This was crowded out last month.]

IN the recent election in Illinois, S. M. Etter, of Bloomington, was elected Superintendent of Public Instruction to succeed Hon. Newton Bateman, who has so long and ably presided over the educational interests of that State.

"CAN BUT."—A correspondent sends the following:

The late Principal of our school said that in the sentence—"I can but admit that in this case there is some doubt," *can but* is a verb, modified by the participle *admit*. Our new Principal says *can admit* is the verb, modified by the adverb *but*. Which is right?

ANSWER.—Taking the sentence as it reads, and understanding it to mean: "I can barely admit," etc., the latter is right; but probably the sentence should read thus: "I cannot but admit," etc. In this case *but* is used in the place of a verb of avoiding, and your former principal was nearly right, from his probable standpoint, but he failed to correct the sentence by changing *can* into *cannot*. But he was wrong in calling admit a participle; it is a verb in the infinitive mode, without the sign of *to*. The probable meaning intended by the sentence becomes clear if expressed in this way, "I cannot help admitting that in this case there is some doubt."

DECIMALS.—A correspondent at Reedsburg writes: We have been discussing decimals pretty sharply, and, though the arithmetics used here state that the decimal point (.) is used to separate the decimal from the whole number, still we cannot decide on the *technical* meaning of the word and its use. Is an *integer* a decimal? By answering you will oblige,

Yours, &c.,

L. A. MURRY.

The general idea of decimals is that of fractions of an integer of the peculiar kind indicated by the term decimal. An integer is not, therefore, considered abstractly a decimal, nor a decimal an integer. But in treating concrete numbers, what is ordinarily taken as the unit and integer may become a decimal. In federal money the dollar is ordinarily taken as the integer, and denominations lower are decimals. But if we treat eagles as the integers, dollars become decimals. If we are treating cents alone, we use them as integers. The arithmetics are not usually sufficiently exact in their

statement or clear in their explanations on the subject.

MANITOWOC, as we see from a late number of the Tribune, had a truly festal day last month—the 11th, in connection with the public schools in the First District, in charge of H. Barns. The "Song of Welcome," the Essays, "Found in a Stocking," and the "Need of Studying Things as well as Books," by Misses Barr and Sherman, the music, the report of the Principal showing the school to have attained a very high degree of good discipline and progress, the bountiful refreshments, the toasts, and speeches in response by Superintendent Kirwan and others, all contributed to make an occasion of evident delight. This was a reception given by the teachers to the people, who in turn we trust will sustain the teachers on every hand, in their good work. We have heard many favorable comments on the schools in Manitowoc in charge of Messrs. Barns and Viebahn and their several assistants.

SUPERINTENDENT WARREN JOHNSON, of Maine, recommends that the school moneys paid from the State Treasury should be apportioned to the several towns according to the actual number of the scholars *enrolled*, not as at present according to the *census* population between 4 and 21 years of age. He says, "If the State's award be given for the number of youth *educated*, not for the number of children *raised*, the necessity of a compulsory law would be largely obviated."

THE Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Maine for 1873, shows that during the last ten years there has been a decrease in the school population of that State of over 14,000. The diminution has been chiefly in the rural portions and the villages. Yet the population of the State has remained about the same.

WE take pleasure in calling attention to a strong endorsement of Swinton's Grammar and Language Series, on our advertising pages.

WOMEN AS SCHOOL OFFICERS.—Just before the final adjournment of the State Teachers' Association on Wednesday evening, Superintendent Searing offered the following resolution which was unanimously, heartily—even enthusiastically—adopted:

Resolved, That women should be by law rendered eligible to all school offices in the State.

THE MEETINGS.—We expect a full report of the proceedings from the Secretaries for our next number. These annual gatherings in the holidays become each year more interesting and important. Several of the subjects discussed are elsewhere adverted to. Valuable Papers on other subjects were presented, which we hope to give in future numbers, beginning with Prest. Chapin's Paper on the "True Function of the College."

RESIGNATIONS.—J. G. Knight, Superintendent of La Fayette county, and W. H. Peck, Superintendent of Iowa county have resigned, as we learn. Up to the time of going to press no official notice of the vacancies had been received by the State Superintendent, so that their successors have not yet been appointed.

ASSOCIATION.—The Executive Committee announced, at the late "Semi-Annual" meeting, that the next Annual Meeting will be held in Eau Claire. This is well, for Eau Claire and the northwest, and with the expected opening of the Fourth Normal School, in September, at River Falls, will give a strong impetus to public school work in that quarter of the State.

CHIPPEWA FALLS.—The school here is still in charge of E. S. Tilson, assisted by Mary W. Colton and Sara Kern. The Intermediate department is in charge of Ada E. Poppleton, and the Primary in that of Lydia Ruggles. From the report for October, in the *Herald*, the several departments appear to be doing well.

IN the examination of candidates for teaching in the State of New York the first inquiry is: Have you ever attended a Teachers' Institute?

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

HIGHER ARITHMETIC. By G. P. QUACKENBOS, LL. D. Upon the Basis of the Works of Geo. R. Perkins, LL. D. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 420 pp. 12 mo.

The many changes and improvements made of late years in the treatment of arithmetical science render it necessary for school-book publishers to be on the alert. This book not only aims to be up with the times, but to give practical methods in business or commercial arithmetic in actual use, and thus to make it unnecessary, as is often required, for a young man, when he enters upon business, to unlearn his arithmetic and learn it over. The work is also in accordance with the most recent legislation touching business matters, interest, etc. We think the book fills the place it is designed for very well indeed.

POEMS OF THE FARM AND FIRESIDE. By Eugene J. Hall, author of Stories of a Winter Night; Caleb Comford; Footprints in the Snow; Won at Last; Mankind in General, etc. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co., 1875.

This nicely printed volume from our enterprizing Chicago publishers, has about it the elements of a durable popularity, and is just such a book as will do good, especially among the classes from whose lives and experiences its materials are mostly drawn. While not of a high order, the poems are natural, and pleasing and reach the heart. Some of the abuses and evils of the day are touched upon, but in a wise and kindly spirit, and the writer's heart goes out in sympathy for the lowly and suffering. The book is printed and bound in a very tasteful manner, and has several illustrations. Price $1.75, and $2.25, according to style.

MEMORIES: A story of German love. Translated from the German by George P. Upton. Published by Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, pp. 173, price $2.25.

Although this is a "story of German love," it is little like an ordinary love story. But it is a charming book both in outward and inward qualities, and its issue a credit to the enterprising publishers. It is impossible to give an idea of the book by a short description or analysis. Those who are attracted by simplicity and earnestness, by purity of love, and by refinement and delicacy of feeling, will be charmed by these heart-pictures from the best side of German life. The moral and religious tone of the volume is also most wholesome. Some of our readers will take more interest in the book when they know that Prof. Feuling, of the University, had a hand in some parts of the translation. We are sorry not to have had a chance to commend it as a gift-book for the holidays, but it is even better adapted for the more private mementoes of affection.

LITTELL'S LIVING AGE, which has now been published thirty years, with constantly increasing popularity, begins a new volume with the new year. It is a weekly magazine, of sixty-four pages and gives more than three and a quarter thousand double-column octavo pages of reading-matter yearly, forming four large volumes. It presents in an inexpensive form, considering its great amount of matter, with freshness, owing to its weekly issue, and with a satisfactory completeness attempted by no other publication, the best Essays, Reviews, Criticisms, Tales, Poetry, Scientific, Biographical, Historical and Political Information, from the entire body of Foreign Periodical Literature.

During the coming year, the serial and short stories of the leading foreign authors will be given, together with an amount unapproached by any other periodical in the world, of the best literary and scientific matter of the day, from the pens of foremost living Essayists, Scientists, Critics, Discoverers and Editors, representing every department of knowledge and progress. "Possessed of *The Living Age* and one or other of our vivacious American monthlies, a subscriber will find himself in command of the whole situation." Terms $8 a year, free of postage; or $10.50 (covering prepayment of postage on both periodicals, instead of for $10.00 with postage not pre-

paid, as heretofore) *The Living Age* and either one of the American four dollar monthly Magazines (or *Harper's Weekly* or *Bazar*, or *Appleton's Journal*, weekly) will be sent for a year; or, for $9.50, *The Living Age* and *Scribner's St. Nicholas.*—Address Littell & Gay, Boston.

SCRIBNER'S MONTHLY, began a new year (its ninth volume) with the November number, and with the ambition it has maintained from the first to be the most beautiful and in every way the best popular Magazine in the world. During the current year it promises such marvels of illustrative engraving as no popular magazine has ever been able to publish. Among the other attractive features of the year, will be a new serial novel, "The Story of Sevenoaks," by J. G. Holland, author of "Bitter Sweet," "Arthur Bonnicastle," etc.; this opens with the January number; a series of papers, from various pens, entitled, "American Life and Scenery," including descriptive papers on American cities, also opens in January, with a narrative of Western Discovery and Adventure, by Major Powell, whose descent of the Colorado is one of the most famous exploits of Western travel. This series will rival "The Great South" papers in the magnificence of its illustrations, while possessing greater variety and wider interest, Also another illustrated series, "A Farmer's Vacation in Europe," six articles, recounting the experience of (Colonel Waring, of Ogden Farm, Neport, R. I.), during a tour in autumn of 1873. The January number is superb. $4.00 a year. Address Scribner & Co., 654 Broadway, N. Y.

OLD AND NEW.—This is one of the best of our magazines, and with the January number begins a new volume, the eleventh, and a new series, and hence this is a favorable time to subscribe. The Department of Fine Art, which we learn is highly prized by artists, the Record of Progress, which deals with matters of Social Science, under editorial charge of F. B. Sanborn, Secretary of the Social Science Association, and the Musical Review, are very attractive features. The reputation of the editor, Edward E. Hale, and of the distinguished writers who have contributed in the past and who will continue to do so in the future, is complete guarantee of a rich literary feast each month. For further particulars, see the advertisement in this number. The subscription price of Old and New is $4.00 a year; to clergymen at trade price. Address Lee & Shepard, 41 and 45 Franklin street, Boston.

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JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

VOL. V. FEBRUARY, 1875. No. II.

THE TRUE FUNCTION OF THE COLLEGE.

BY REV. A. L. CHAPIN, PRESIDENT BELOIT COLLEGE.

[Paper Read before the Semi-annual Meeting of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association, at Madison, December 29, 1874.]

This paper is prepared by request, for an association of American teachers. I am warranted therefore in treating of the *American College*, without stopping to notice resemblances or differences between this and other institutions under the same or other names, doing an analogous work in other lands. The American college is an institution *sui generis* peculiarly adapted to our country, and most peculiar in this, that while steadily prosecuting one aim, it has evinced a wonderful facility in adjusting its means and methods to the ever developing wants of a progressive country, in a progressive age. The Yale College of to-day, considered apart from its university appendages, is in all its external features as unlike the Yale College of the year 1701, as the spreading, full grown oak is unlike the sapling of a year's growth from the acorn. Yet, its true function is unchanged. Through all the intervening period, it has been conservative of nothing so much as of this its function, and of that we trust it will be forever conservative.

The records respecting the founding of the first college of New England say, as early as 1636, "The Lord was pleased to direct the hearts of the magistrates to think of erecting a school or college, and that speedily, to be a *nursery of knowledge* in these deserts, and *supply for posterity*." So we understand that the college is "a nursery of knowledge and supply for posterity," as it trains and fits men for service in the church, in the civil state, and in all the high posts of influence where cultivated mind has power.

But more especially, the college aims to impart to young minds a culture beyond that of the common schools, which shall give to each *self knowledge—self possession* in the full command of all his faculties—*breadth of view* in respect to the range of truth, its departments and its applications—and *a moral and religious character*, based on a love of truth for its own sake, and prompting the consecration of all the powers of mind, and all the acquisitions gained, to the good of men and the glory of God as the true end of being. These four things are not only grouped together, but they are interlocked and interwoven in the true aim of the college. They are mutually helpful to the best development of each particular; and they combine in the symmetrical unfolding of the best qualities of a true and noble manhood.

Now the function of the college, as I understand it, is to fulfill this complex yet single and distinct aim, by the best appliances within its reach. Yet the result depends not so much on the appliances, the instrumental means, as upon the

inherent element or quality of its life, an invisible, intangible, indescribable something which determines all its processes and results, just as the character of the fruit which a tree bears is determined by that undiscernible and incomprehensible chemical element, hidden with the germ in the seed and governing the organization and the life processes of the plant as long as its life continues. I suppose that Harvard College and Yale College have sent out no better men—better I mean with reference to their practical power to increase knowledge and mould the thinking and action of the age, and supply posterity with the elements that quicken intellectual and moral life,—than many of their earlier graduates, whose courses of study and facilities for improvement were hardly equal to those of the respectable High Schools of to-day. I have also been struck often before, and very forcibly lately, by the fact that men go from our young colleges at the West, whose endowments are meager, and whose working force, as it appears on the catalogues, seems quite insufficient as compared with those of the old and strong colleges of the land; and these men when measured in the technical and professional schools with others, rank on an average not one whit below or behind their fellows who come from the richer or greater institutions. These facts are accounted for by a recognition of the presence and power of the ideal aim just indicated, to give a law of the life essentially one and the same for every true college. In saying this, I would not undervalue the importance of endowments and liberal equipments. It is essential to the life of a college that it should grow and keep growing in these respects, so as to be doing constantly a broader and a better work, as its years run on. But these things must be assimilated so as to be brought under that law paramount which governs all, just as the life principle of the tree assimilates all available external material, so as to incorporate all into its being and growth for the more perfect fulfillment of its fruit-bearing function.

These leading ideas will be best expanded and illustrated by noticing in a few particulars, the things which are peculiar in the organization and routine of the college, for the discharge of its function. Without prejudging the question of the co-education of the sexes, I treat the subject with my mind fixed on an institution for young men, which till quite recently has been the only thing to which the name college was properly attached. Much that I shall say will apply to the higher education of young women as well, whether that be prosecuted in the same institution with young men or in one devoted exclusively to that sex.

1. The first peculiarity of the college to be noticed is the persons, who form the material on which its vital forces act, in the fulfillment of its function. These are young men, somewhere between the ages of fifteen and twenty-five. It is and ought to be an exception to the rule when one enters college under the age of fifteen: the cases will be rare when one at his graduation has gone beyond the age of twenty-five. In general, I regard the years from eighteen to twenty-two the best. At this period of life, the capacities of the soul are well awake, quick to catch the inspiration of great thoughts and high aims. By some elementary discipline they have been brought considerably under control of the possessor's will-power. They have, under special preparation, advanced somewhat in the acquisition of knowledge, and come to the new sphere with some real relish for learning. At the same time, they are in the gristle, not hardened into bone. They are flexible, impressible, ductile, just in a condition for the process of crystalization into the tastes and habits of a life to begin and go on, most favorably and most rapidly under the formative force of that vital principle of the college just referred to. Well has one of our most experienced American educators distinguished between the college and the university thus: "The college is a *training* place for minds that are yet immature in the elements of knowledge and culture. The university is a *teaching* place for those who are supposed to have been

trained to the capacities and responsibilities of incipient manhood." Training and teaching go on together I suppose in all the stages of education, but in the college the *training* is the main thing, and so it takes youth at just the period when training tells most effectively. The college course ends with what is called a *commencement*, to indicate that the youth has or ought to have matured under its training so as to be ready to begin some manly work.

2. The second peculiarity of the college respects the term of years through which the youth is held under its influence, in the exercise of its function. This has been fixed, I hardly know how, at just four years, and so it has stood through all the history of the American college. It rests on no arbitrary enactment. It is retained by no old fogy tenacity for things that are ancient and time-worn. But actual experience has proved that this measure of time, neither more nor less, is necessary to secure the best results of this training. So, out of the ten years defined above—four years—the best four which the circumstances of each individual permit, are selected for a distinct and separate residence, in constant contact with the atmosphere and associations and activities of the college. If the period is prolonged, it involves some retrenchment on either the preliminary preparatory culture, or on the subsequent university teaching. If it is curtailed, the result will be impaired. The last statement will be most questioned; let us linger on it a few minutes. One asks, if a young man can do, in three years, the work which others must take four years for, why not give him a chance to save a year? My prompt answer is, because it will be for him a year lost, not saved. The real question should be, not can he do as much as others, but can he do the most for himself by thus hurrying the process? And to this question I answer no; because time is an important element for perfecting the process. That is a beautiful chemical experiment which illustrates the process of crystalization by a solution of lead. When the point of saturation is reached, the wire is thrust in, and the process will begin at once, but you must wait a certain number of days for the result to be perfected under the still action of that law of chemical affinities which none of us can comprehend. You cannot hasten the process. Time under the law will do it best. Now, something very like this holds in the no less wonderful crystilization of souls, which takes place in college. There is a law of affinities which must be respected, and which must be allowed its own time. The mistake comes from supposing that the function of the college is merely to carry the student through so many text books, or over so much ground of mathematics and physics and philosophy or whatever. That is indeed one thing. But the conditions under which it is done are of more importance than the thing itself. These conditions are the regimen of college life, the aid of daily contact with a superior mind in the class-room, and the unconscious influence of students on one another in just their associations—the last perhaps the most important of all. You may possibly study, all by yourself, and come and pass all required examinations as well as any, but that will not give you college culture. That can come only through the combination of influences, just named, and the withdrawal of the student from that combination of influences for any part of the time involves a loss poorly compensated by the time gained in getting through. Matthew Arnold has well put this point in commenting on the German gymnasia. I quote his words, with slight variation to suit my topic: "The total cultivation of the man is the great matter, and this is why the term of years is prescribed, that the study may not degenerate into a preparation for the examinations, that the student may have the requisite time to come steadily and without over-hurrying, to the fullness of the measure of his powers and his character; that he may be securely and thoroughly formed, instead of being bewildered and oppressed by a mass of information hastily heaped together."

3. A third peculiarity of the college appears in the prescribed curriculum of study, enforced by daily recitations. I put emphasis here on the word prescribed, as against the word elective, which some would substitute, and upon daily recitations, as distinguished from mere courses of lectures and extended readings. For the period of life already referred to, and the stage of development, something authoritative with respect to both the matter of study and the manner of its prosecution, are necessary in order to ensure that mental discipline which the true function of the college contemplates. It admits of only a limited range to the free choice of the student for himself, and demands a daily responsibility to form the habit of strict fidelity to duty. Only as the youth learns at that stage of life cheerfully to follow the direction of superior wisdom, and to bow to the behest of legitimate authority, can he ripen into a manhood endowed with wisdom and worthy to be invested with authority to direct and control others, and to wield the highest power of influence. Out of such discipline come both self-knowledge and self-possession. Then if we consider the curriculum itself, we find it, though greatly changed in its details, yet essentially the same in its main features through all the history of the American college. Modern research has made great advances in every branch of human learning, and the college has adjusted its courses all along to these advances; but the great departments and the proportion between these departments differ little now from what they were a century ago. It is still Latin, Greek and Mathematics, to reveal and exercise the mind's powers in analysis and synthesis,—physics and science, history and philosophy, to discipline the mind in observation, and judgment, and reasoning, and to open up to view the boundless sea of knowledge which invites explorers. It might be pertinent to my theme to discuss somewhat at length the fitness of the several parts of this curriculum to the function of the college; but the time will not permit. I can only say further, it is a singular fact that within the last fifty years several of the leading colleges of the day have considered and proposed modifications of the old courses of study, especially with a view to curtailing the time devoted to the classical languages. The result has been invariably to settle them more firmly than ever upon the old curriculum. Respecting the value of the old classics, J. Stuart Mill says: "The position of the Greek and Roman languages in the curriculum is justified by the great value in education of knowing well some other cultivated language and literature than one's own, and by the peculiar value of those particular languages and literature." And in another connection he asserts that "the mastery of Latin makes it easier to learn four or five of the continental languages than it is to learn one of them without it." The course of study in the American college, unlike the usage in England, has always been framed so as in the last two years, to introduce the student to various branches of knowledge. This is, however, only an introduction. It is, as one has termed it, an "encyclopedic" rather than a specific and full presentation, enough to expand the view of the range of truth, and to familiarize the mind with the forms of knowledge and the methods of investigation in the several departments of truth.

4. The fourth and last peculiarity of the college to which I will refer, is the pervading presence, through all its discipline and culture, of a positive religious influence. Historically, the college has been founded by Christian men, in the interests of virtue and the Christian faith, as essential to perfect and crown the development of souls formed in the image of God, for immortality. Accordingly, its regimen provides for the participation of the college community, as such, in Christian worship; and as a matter of fact, its instruction and discipline are mainly in the hands of men of positive and earnest Christian character. It cannot be otherwise to any great extent, if the college fulfills its function, in the formation of a moral character, well defined,

stable and strong. The element of Christian self-sacrifice and devotion is essential to sustain men in the patient, toilsome and trying work of instruction, which at best can bring little reward in any worldly emoluments within their reach. A moral and religious atmosphere pervading the college is essential also to the maintenance of order, and is the best stimulus of young men to noble purpose and high endeavor, for self-discipline and improvement. At the forming period of life, already referred to, when passions are strong, and the judgment is immature and weak, when temptations are many and subtle, and principles are unsettled, and the will power is unstrung or wildly impetuous, there is nothing like the steady inflow of christian truth and morality, to settle character and give it stability and breadth and tone, and the problem of life is unsolved except as we admit the fact that "moral and religious perfection are the final aim of all human culture, as they are of our existence and discipline in the human condition." The Christian spirit is in its very nature truth-loving and refining, a quickener in the soul of all that is good and true and right. There is manifest in our day a strong tendency to an unnatural divorce of science and religion, and to set these two, which God hath joined together in a conjugal union most blessed to both, in antagonism to each other. Nothing is better adapted to counteract that tendency than the steady maintenance of this feature of the college. In order to this, it seems necessary that the college should be in the hands of some single religious denomination, not to make its teaching one-sided and sectarian, but in order to secure harmony of administration and unity and effect to its religious character and influence. The best safeguard against sectarian bias and illiberality is to be found in "its responsibility to the community which it would influence, and the enlightened and catholic influences of the culture to which it is devoted." As I conceive it, the function of the college is divinely appointed, for the full development of men fitted to serve the great interests of society. The spring of its efficiency in that function is the life principle which God by his spirit and providence imparts and sustains. A pervading moral and religious influence is that which lifts the college nearest to God, for the quickening of its life-principle, and the directing of its function to the production of richest fruit under His immediate agency and blessing.

Devotional Exercises in our Public Schools.

BY MRS. H. E. G. AREY, WHITEWATER.

The brief exercise of devotion at the opening of the school day is simply an act of reverence to the Creator—to Him who is the personification of all good and all right action. It is a momentary pause over the desire that the action of the day may be in harmony with the rythm of the creation, may tend to right results. As we are a Christian nation, acknowledging externally the claims of Christianity, and in an overwhelming majority acknowledging at heart the claim of reverence, in some form, from man to his Maker, there are few who will deny that some such reference to the spirit of right, either silently or openly, is proper to man in the midst of his duties, and that the habit of it should, in some way, be taught to children. If this is granted the only question must be in regard to form. In this who shall decide? The majority? We are ruled by majorities. Or shall it be the form which the person placed at the head of the school is accustomed to follow? Or shall he try to adopt a form which shall, as far as possible, be acceptable to all? Evidently the spirit and not the form is the thing aimed at. And the bigot—the intolerant man is he who says, "My form is the only one admissible. Your form I will not listen to or tolerate for a moment. My form of reverence is acceptable to my Creator—but yours—it is an insult." This is very far from being the spirit of brotherly love,—of broad acceptance of the common bonds of humanity. It is the spirit of narrowness and hate—a spirit which worships form, and ignores that impulse

of the heart which form, at the best, but dimly shadows forth. This spirit is the worst form of religious intolerance whether it exists in the heart of an infidel or Christian. The broadest thinkers acknowledge the principle of duty, the obligation of right action, and in the end acknowledge that the source of our being must be the embodiment of that principle; else the plan of our being has no unity.

Now when these thinkers deny the use of the name of God in the teaching of the young they deny it on narrow, and not on broad principles. They claim that we must teach duty—right action,—all the harmonious works of the creation to our pupils, but that we shall never mention the central principle which animates and informs the whole; which is the sun about which all revolves; because, perhaps, we may not do it in just the way which they prefer. Let us take the common salutations in different countries. They differ very widely in form, but all have one common aim,—that of expressing the kindly feeling between man and his fellow. Suppose an Englishman, who is in the habit of saying "good morning" to his neighbor, goes to France and is saluted by a Frenchman with "comment vous portes vous," "how do you carry yourself." Instead of receiving this with a comprehension of its intent,—with an eye that sees beyond the mere form, he says, "Faugh, what nonsense! I say 'good morning' to my friends, but these Frenchmen, 'how do you carry yourself' indeed! What is it to them? It's absurd! It's impertinent! I won't salute these Frenchmen at all unless they can say 'good morning,' and they shall not speak to me."

Fortunately in our social life we are more sensible, and really seem to see the spirit under the form. But in our religious life when shall we be so wise? When shall we admit, in reality, that spirit which we constantly profess to look upon as the central point of our religion,—the spirit of human brotherhood?

Take another point that is often brought up as an objection to any form of reverence to our Creator in our schools, that the hour may come when those called upon to engage in the act do not feel like it, and thus it becomes any empty form. This would surely show an undisciplined mind, and undisciplined minds are what our schools are working to overcome.

Apply the same objection to our earthly relations. A son refuses to say "good morning" to his father, because he happens at that moment to hate his father; he does not find in his heart any desire that his father shall have a good morning, but rather the contraay.

Let him go out into the street in this spirit, and pass his acquaintances without a word, only a grim setting together of the lips, because, forsooth, he finds everything at war in his own spirit and won't be hypocrite enough to pretend that he wishes his friends may be more fortunate. How soon should we cast such a person out of the pale of our social affections, as an essentially selfish and ill balanced person? And what is the thing for him to do when he finds himself in such a spirit? Evidently to use all his efforts to stop the little break in the milldam of the bitter waters of hate, which if allowed to break loose at the full would deluge the whole world. If there is ever a time when a mind honest with itself calls for help from without it is when these conflicts of the spirit come, and indifference to responsibility is a thing which such a mind will, with constant care, avoid. Shall we use less self-control in our relations to our Creator than in those to our fellow beings?

THE IMPORTANCE of THE TEACHER'S WORK.

The teacher who can return to the school room at the opening of a new school year's work without a feeling of apprehension and anxiety for the success or failure of his labors, has never yet reached the high attainment to which it is the privilege and the duty of every true teacher to aspire. There is no occupation in the world which should command more self control, self-respect and self-reliance than that of the teacher; and yet, when the most confident of us reflect for a moment upon the immense respon-

sibilities which we assume on entering the teacher's vocation, we cannot repress the shudder which the consciousness of our own incompetency sends through our frame. It is not simply that we have the future destiny of our own pupils very largely at our command, not simply that it will again devolve upon us to train and fashion the character and the thoughts of a few score of young people who are entrusted to our care, though this alone is a terrible responsibility, but we are to help determine the course and character of other teachers and other schools; we are to help solve the great problems of public school economy, which are rising thicker and more formidable every day and every year; and our actions and our teaching are to affect a circle much larger than the confined one of our own school room. The world is looking upon us for information; critics are observing our methods and the results obtained, that they may be placed before the world for the future welfare of the schools. We have it in our power, then, either to so conduct our teaching as to foster and protect the public school interests and strengthen the bulwarks of the system, or to persist in a course of error and provoke an onslaught upon the schools which will greatly retard the progress of public education, if not temporarily thwart our best efforts and destroy the good results already achieved. It becomes every teacher in the public schools to choose well his course of action, to study carefully the best methods, and guard with the most prudent watchfulness against all errors in teaching, which an observing public, interested in the success of the common school system, is daily pointing out to those who will observe and profit thereby.—*Milwaukee Pub. School Record.*

A PARISIAN philosopher propounds a question, and gives the answer: "Why has nature given us two ears and but one tongue? In order that we should repeat but one-half of what we hear."

SPEECH is silver—silence is gold.

GROWTH.

BY MISS HELEN M. BINGHAM, MONROE.

[Essay read at Institute in Monroe, Nov. 13, 1874.]

Not long ago it was my good fortune to visit an artist's studio. Among the pictures that attracted my attention was the portrait of an old gentleman. "I finished him this morning," said the artist. "His grand daughter says he is natural enough to speak; and, it may be her remark, or it may be because I know he was an inveterate talker, or because I have worked with him so long that he seems like an old familiar friend, I cannot tell why it is, but I have a strange fancy that some time he will speak. He was an unsuccessful clergyman. His hearers complained that he scolded them, that he never spoke without exaggeration, that he went all round a subject advocating all sides of his question and then stopping just where he started. They declared that the only thing they ever learned from his preaching was that he never stopped until he had mentioned Socrates seven times. His habit of seeing everything in two aspects extended to his view of himself. In fault finding moods, when he criticised this country, he spoke of himself as a German because his parents were German. At other times he was proud to be called an American." While we talked thus, in the irreverent way people speak of pictures, of the old gentleman's eccentricities and personal appearance, the sun passed behind a cloud, and in the temporary shade something like a frown settled upon his face making him look so ill-natured that we said to each other, "he is preparing to scold us as he scolded his people."

Gradually the conversation drifted away to other things—and we talked of literature, politics and growth, of public schools, and finally of teachers' institutes. After a time the artist was called away and I was left alone. As soon as the door closed, the old gentleman began to look at me in the disagreeable way possible to portraits. "He is wondering if I am a good listener," I thought; and very soon he seemed to have decided in my

favor, for he poured upon me such a torrent of abuse that I should have buried my face in my black alpaca and died for shame had I not perceived that his displeasure extended to all my countrymen, and that he assailed me only because there was no one else present. "You have been talking a great deal," he began, "about progress and culture and growth. That is the way with you Americans. You are always talking, but your lives always show that you care nothing for that of which you are talking the most. What do you care about growth, for example? and by you I mean all your countrymen. How are you laboring to advance your culture? To answer these questions let us inquire what is the mode of life in this country? It is evidently not an article of the popular creed that growth, the growth of the soul, is the object of life. Wise men have supposed that to promote this growth, the body should be made an instrument perfectly adapted to the needs of the soul, but it is the fashion in America to make the soul the slave of the body. Socrates made his wants as few as possible, in humble imitation of the gods who want nothing. He ate coarse food and wore coarse clothes. He made himself insensible to fatigue, to heat and to cold. When he was a soldier he marched barefoot over ice and snow and felt no inconvenience. In your day a barefoot boy, playing in the sun, is addressed as little man, and poet and painter unite in immortalizing his torn hat and cheeks of tan. You seem to feel that you can not do enough for your bodies. Your food is brought to you at great expense of time and strength from every quarter of the globe. The preparation of your fine raiment goes on night and day. Men rob the earth of her treasures that your wants may be satisfied. The animals, plants and minerals are almost without exception made to contribute to your comfort and adornment. You, yourselves, toil early and late that the body may live in that splendor which seems to you fitting. Meanwhile body and soul grow sick and weakly together. The one is dying of too much care, a care that exacts from it a wearisome, wearing labor in providing the means by which it is robbed of health and vigor. The other is the victim of neglect and starvation. But you work on, and when, at last, every imaginary want is satisfied, though the advertisements of physicians and patent medicines fill your newspapers, cover your public buildings and mar the beauty of every natural curiosity in the land, you sit down and talk complacently of the progress of the race. From your books one would not suppose the progress of the race to be a subject of rejoicing. You are as solemn as Minerva's owls. By the time you are twelve years old you have outgrown the thoughtless gaiety of childhood, but when you are sixty you have given yourselves no time for that growth in faith and philosophy which should enable you to surmount the worst ills of life with hopeful serenity. Did I say no time for growth in faith and philosophy? I should have said no time for growth in anything. It is said that the water flowing from the Hot Springs of Arkansas makes for itself, out of the carbonate of lime it holds in solution, little troughs in which it runs. Just so does each one of you make for himself out of his avocation the groove in which he runs, and only so much of his soul as touches the channel his business has made is kept fresh and green like the moss which lines the troughs at the springs and which grows only where the hot water may flow over it. Once in such a groove, circumstances weigh their victim down like The Old Man of the Sea and he goes on in it to the end of his life. He looks up out of it at the world and frequently when he sees only the side of his groove he thinks that is the world.

You remember Cooper's surgeon who justified war because it promotes a knowledge of surgery. I have seen many such cases. A minister and a woman's rights lecturer met recently in this room. Said the minister, speaking in his groove, 'I know one woman who is making her life a grand success.' 'Ah, indeed,' said the lecturer in his groove, taking out his note book and imagining a companion to

Mary Somerville, Florence Nightingale or Mrs. Livermore, 'and what does she do?' 'For ten years,' was the reply, 'with patient, cheerful resignation she has been quietly waiting for death.' Half the men I see are cases of arrested development. Some of them might say as Chesterfield said, I have been dead these two years, but I do not choose to have it known. They are dwarfed and one sided. All their views are particular. They do not strive for broad, for universal views. They are the kind of people you call good, for good is the adjective applied to those who are so lacking in positive qualities that they cannot be described by any other. And they may be good as far as they go. It is possible for a man to obey the laws, move stoves without scolding his wife, read his newspaper, pay his debts, attend church regularly and return borrowed umbrellas after he has ceased to grow. These and other good things men do without in a single thought getting out of the beaten track they have traveled twenty years. There is little hope for one who has stopped growing. A man is not a spruce tree to stand still nine-tenths of the year and grow vigorously the rest of the time. He cannot grow symmetrically by fits and starts. My auditors used to come to me after a week of dull plodding care and nod under my best discourse.

Perhaps you think ma'am that a teacher never gets into a groove, never stops growing, but I assure you no occupation leaves uglier marks on its devotees than a teacher's. No need of the school ma'am's uniform of black alpaca. Her voice and manner are a sufficient announcement of her presence. If you are really alive and possessed of the interests and sympathies of sentient beings why do people always feel it incumbent upon them to talk school to you? When you meet a banker or a lumberman do you feel obliged to ask the one about exchange, or the other if he like shingles? No, you suppose they are too gentlemanly to talk shop, as the phrase is. You suppose they can talk to you of something else—of schools for instance. I heard you tell the artist of an institute of which you expect great good. I went to an institute once. It was when my hearers had lost their interest in the gospel to such an extent that I frequently used the same sermon twice in succession, knowing that I shouldn't have the same audience both times. The institute was to be in our town and I was invited to assist. One of my friends, a teacher, was going to speak. He said he would leave his school mostly to his assistant the week preceding the institute while he studied the letter A, and he thought he should be able to show that that letter had seven sounds. After some talk I decided to use my last sermon another Sunday and, like the school master, work for education. When I went to the institute the school master was speaking. About five dozen school ma'ams sat before him, pale and motionless, while he repeated seven sounds for the letter A. He said he feared there were some teachers unable to give those seven sounds. And who should say what punishment would be too great for a teacher ignorant of the first letter of the alphabet. To teach an innocent trusting child burning with thirst for knowledge but four sounds of the letter A, was to give him a stone when he asked for bread. I followed my friend and, after saying how thankful we should be for the privilege of listening to an address so electrifying and inspiring, I proceeded to demonstrate that there is no such thing in the world as a fraction. I showed that as one unit may be four times as large as another, so we should say, not that one is one-fourth of another, but that it takes four units of the lower order to make one unit of the higher order. I told the school ma'ams to expend one weeks' wages on apples, a judicious slicing of which would convince the stupidest boy that one unit may be four times as large as another unit; but I exhorted them, as they hoped sometime to be called good and faithful, to see that no student of theirs ever heard of the wicked and foolish doctrine of fractions. The next speaker began by saying that all who hoped for the perpetuity of our great

and glorious union must rejoice over the downfall of a theory fraught with the danger of that whose discussion they had just listened to. This man was seeking the plural of the word fish. Should it be fish or fishes? His arguments were many and long; but the school ma'ams, who seemed unreasonably tired when I finished speaking, persisted in whispering about new bonnets and ribbons during this exercise, and I was so busy frowing at them that I forgot to learn which word I should use. The fish man and the man of the seven sounds and I were tired too, and we rejoiced that the women who, if they had spoken at all, would have talked us and each other to death, hadn't learned anything to say. What after all does your work as teachers amount to? Socrates taught great truths to the citizens of Athens as he walked through the streets, but besides your having nothing to talk about except schools, and nothing of value to say, only children have time to be taught in America. Them you crowd together and set to studying some text-book of which the principal merit is that is different from that used by your predecessor. I do not know what the older children learn but I am told that in Boston children of five years of age learn, among other things equally important, that the letter E is composed of one perpendicular line and two horizontal lines.

It is a great obstacle to growth that one can not know what he misses. Thus the irreligious man knows nothing of the joys of religion, the dumb can not, I am sure, have any conception of the pleasure of talking, and the man of treadmill existence forgets that there is either pleasure or advantage in growing. Hence it happens that you lose sight of your obligation to grow. Nay, not knowing what you miss, you think you can not afford to grow. One of your educators is accustomed to say, learn everything of something, *then* something of everything. You are accustomed to act by this rule: Stick to your business, learn that tolerably well. You underrate all knowledge and pursuits that do not bring money. You hurry children from school saying it is time for them now to be doing something as though they had done nothing heretofore. I hear no hopes expressed for the little fellow who was found in Emerson's garden digging after the infinite, but I see that for the boy who makes sharp trades over his marbles, and who persuades his companions to hurrah for his favorite politician, you have always praise and promises of a bright future. You have numberless books. O, that this scribbling generation would remember the wise Socrates who never wrote a book! You are a nation of readers, but you read for entertainment, not for improvement. You look upon reading as a dissipation to be indulged in very cautiously. I heard a man described as 'too lazy even to read.' Women especially believe they waste time if they steal a few minutes from their sewing to read and think. Col. Higginson has encountered in Boston, your literary centre, the old idea of womanhood expressed by the London innkeeper who wrote on his sign 'the good woman' and then painted under the words the figure of a woman without a head. There is little striving among you for that high culture which gives one the possession of all his powers, that culture whose possessor has no fears for the future and no regrets for the past that having been all that his nature could make it. This is the age of shows and of shams. You have less ambition to be than to be seen. You are not willing to pass for what you are worth. You put as little as possible of yourselves into your work and hope to escape the evils that come upon you by an office or a fortune that somebody shall give you. Your pride is as false as your architecture which falls upon and destroys you. Your ideas seem confused. You have no respect for old institutions and customs, but you caricature your great men today just as two thousand years ago men caricatured the opinions, the garments and the person of Socrates. When Thoreau was alive there was one among you who tried to teach men how to earn a living and live at the same time, but he is no favorite with you. Women do not

like him who grows in single blessedness more than they like Socrates for his avowal that he married for moral discipline, and men complain that Thoreau was a dreamer. But where would you be had Columbus never dreamed? What of your best comforts, liberty, knowledge, do you not owe to dreams? Dreams are to man what tendrils are to the vine which climbs aloft supported by those tender branches sent out in advance of itself to find and clasp whatever may help on its way. Man and vine alike cease to grow when they cease to reach out for something beyond themselves. The labor which gives form to a noble dream makes life a poem and is its own reward. It is a growth which urges the soul to new activities. Socrates had a dream for whose fulfillment he gave up his profession and spent his life in contented poverty. But so fatal to growth is your unthinking ant-like activity that there are many of you whose only dream is a dream of rest; their ideal life one in which there is nothing to do. To this joyless, dwarfed and dreamless condition do so many of you come at last that the critics say Americans are the least cultivated people in the world; and while my dear old Germany announces some valuable discovery, some great truth, nearly every year, you, they say, give the world no new thought. Nor will you have any to give so long as you live in this way. A nation's value lies not in the number of its inhabitants, but in its great men. If you would be a nation among nations there must be those among you who will devote themselves to higher things. You must have thinkers, philosophers."

The speaker paused, but I knew he had merely stopped for breath for he had mentioned Socrates only six times. Before he spoke again his face was lighted by a sunny smile. The door had swung open. Perhaps the smile was only the reflection of the sunshine from without.

"The mention of peculiarities," said he, "should not always be received as unfavorable criticism. Rightly understood it may be the highest praise. I confess my sensations were not entirely pleasurable when, looking at my portrait, you called my nose a tremendous handle for fate; but," and here his face grew still brighter, "when you expressed your faith in the Napoleonic idea of great noses, great men, your adjective, inappropriate as it still seems to me, became a compliment. Now I have mentioned some American peculiarities which to our European visitors seem strange as are the points of my physiognomy to you, but I think it will be found that some of them are nowise discreditable. Our critics say that we Americans bend our best energies to the accumulation of wealth. This is right. The love of money is as influential as the love of knowledge in promoting civilization; its pursuit is not more selfish than the pursuit of knowledge, nor is the pursuer less worthy, less useful, than the student. Wealth brings leisure and all means of culture. In all countries a certain degree of wealth must precede the pursuit of knowledge, and the devotion to material pursuits which characterizes this people is not only an excusable, but the right and indispensable, prelude to its growth as an intellectual nation. And even if those who are presumably the best educated class of the country spend but a few short years in study, and then lose themselves in the whirl of business, it is not so bad as it might be. They thus give time for others to study, and there is gained a general diffusion of knowledge which is a long step forward in civilization, and in which America is unrivalled. If hardly any one gets a full meal, still, as Theodore Parker has said, almost every one gets a mouthful of education. It is superficial education; it does not make men, but it is at least a beginning that promises much for the future. Simple existence in America implies a knowledge of truths ancient philosophers never dreamed of. The poor and ignorant immigrant enters upon a course of education the day of his arrival. His line of vision has been bounded by the limits of his own country. He crosses the ocean and finds a people who explain to him the relations of that country to the world. He finds different

nationalities, opposite creeds, religious and political, flourishing side by side. He begins to grow. One by one he bursts the shells in which ignorance has bound him and comes forth a little larger, a little more of a man. Land is given him; for the first time he may have a home of his own. His labor gives him better food and better clothing, better fuel and light than he has had before, as well as comforts hitherto unknown. Life takes on a higher and better meaning. Citizenship awakens him to a sense of manhood, and he learns his rights in a time so incredibly short that no one should doubt the possibility of teaching him his duties. The newspaper brings knowledge of all kinds within his reach and the State educates his children. In whatever work he engages, I had almost said even to the election of his candidates, there is machinery to help him. He need waste little of his time in doubtful experiments. Science is ready to tell him the cheapest and best way of doing his work and what kind of weather he will have to do it in.

When I remember the comforts American life generally affords I marvel that we have grown so much, for all our wise and humane surroundings are the result of growth. Think of the growth necessary before men tax themselves to support asylums for the insane, the deaf, the blind, the infirm and the criminal. Of course these beneficent institutions were at first the conceptions of a few. Every reform and improvement originates with the minority and works down through the majority who cry out reform against nature until they have grown far enough to embrace it. But great leaders are useless if men will not follow. None of these conceptions could have been realized had the people opposed them, and I take it to be the bow of promise in America that the people are willing to see the good of every movement proposed. If you doubt this willingness, go into the streets and listen to the earnest discussions of universal suffrage, minority representation, capital punishment, prison reform, temperance, free trade and the relations of labor and capital. Do they not show a love of truth, a desire that justice be done? Does not the spirit of those who came in in the Mayflower 'to seek not gold but God' still remain? There is a general and hearty sympathy with high aims, a half unconscious belief that 'they are the lower classes who do nothing for the good of mankind' and an irrepressible desire to exalt those whose virtues are an exaltation of humanity. Nowhere do heroes find quicker acknowledgment, more generous appreciation. Though we so strive for money, it is not in America that money makes the man. Our popular favorites, those whose biographies we read, and whose pictures we hang upon our walls, are seldom large tax payers; and though we put not His name into our constitution, yet with the best blood in the nation we have washed the one black spot from our country and made it the free home of all His children.

There are undoubtedly faults in our system of education, but as yet it is the best system in the world and is steadily growing better. Our teachers appear to me to spend too much time on technical points, but perhaps they may sometimes defend themselves in the words of Franklin, who when asked the use of some recondite and far-off truth, replied, What is the use of babies? No other country ever made provision for education so early as this; no other is so thoroughly permeated with the belief that knowledge is the measure of progress. In Germany education is compulsory. Without compulsion we are the most common schooled people in the world. We lack the culture which holds the physical, subservient to higher needs, but culture is the flower which comes only after a long growth in education. Our nation, which, if the popular myths were true, would not be old enough to have grown a century plant, is too young for such a flower. We have not, like Germany, a speculative class whose thought leads the world, but neither have we, as Germany has, a class that thinks not at all. There, the philosophers despise the people and write for each other, while

the people neither know nor seek to know the subjects of their investigation. Here, everything is addressed to the people, and it should be our pride that here, more than in any other country, the people are able to appreciate what the world's best thinkers may have to say. We are all middle class, say the aristocrats of the old world. We have to encourage us that the higher classes are always recruited from the middle, and that never before or elsewhere were conditions so favorable for the appearance of a race of nature's noblemen. Great men appear in companies. One age has a brilliant galaxy of poets; another has artists, reformers, statesmen, generals or discoverers; each type of greatness being the result of a long chain of circumstances. The tendency of events in America is towards the elevation of humanity, and we are to hope for men, such men as Diogenes with his lantern never thought to look for. Meanwhile, our public schools, to whom we are indebted for much of the progress we have already made, must continue their diffusion of knowledge and thus make easier the work and surer the coming of the great men for whom we wait. I know of nothing better calculated to promote the improvement of our schools than teachers' institutes, which are happily outgrowing the evils to which I called your attention; and I congratulate you who are to meet at Monroe, where I know you will have the assistance of conscientious and efficient men, that you live in so happy a time, that by your own growth and by promoting the growth of those committed to your care, you may hasten the coming of a race of men such as Socrates would wish to learn of."

That was the seventh time he spoke of Socrates and he said no more.

AN ANECDOTE OF AGASSIZ.

It may not be uninteresting to recall a little incident which happened, nearly twenty years ago, in one of the Massachusetts Normal Schools. That honored old Commonwealth never did a wiser or more generous thing than when she engaged the two men, Agassiz and Guyot, to lecture in her Normal Schools to the young men and women who were to be, not only her own future teachers, but also the teachers in many other States. I was then a pupil at the oldest of them—the school in Framingham. Thither was wont to come Guyot, and, sojourning among us for a week or ten days, talk to us of earth and man, of genesis and the creation, so simply, so kindly, that we forgot the distance between us. And thither came also Agassiz, with his frank, noble, kindly face, to speak to us of the animal kingdom. It was during one of these stays that the incident to which I refer occurred.

During the noon intermission one of the girls had picked up and brought with her to her desk one of the little gray snakes so common in Massachusetts country fields, and while a group of girls were standing by, she suddenly produced it. There was at once a start, and an exclamation of disgust and loathing, and the expected sensation had been quite satisfactorily produced. Agassiz, who was standing on the platform talking with the principal, and waiting for the school to be called to order, instantly came rapidly down the aisle to the excited and disgusted group, and on seeing the cause of the commotion at once took the little frightened creature gently, almost tenderly, into his strong hand, and as the snake twisted itself round his fingers and wrist, he said, quietly, as if it were a friend, "Oh! it is the Coluber De Kayi, so named from Dr. DeKay who first characterized it." The words were nothing, but the gesture and manner were indescribable, at once so protective and so reverential that they, as well as the whole scence, have always stood out clear in my memory with the vividness of one of Chaucer's pictures. It was as if the voice, instead of the simple remark of recognition which it actually uttered, had said—

> "He prayeth well who loveth well
> Both man and bird and beast;
> He prayeth best who loveth best
> All things, both great and small,
> For the dear God who loveth us,
> He made and loveth all."

I cannot answer for the impression on the others, but I know that to one at least that gesture and action, so characteristic of the man, struck the key-note of her teaching for many years afterwards, in many different places, and to thousands of pupils, and the grateful remembrance of it is to me now like a floral offering which I lay upon his distant, honored grave.—ANNA C. BRACKETT.

A Few Thoughts on Compulsory Education.

BY S. D. FORBES, PACKWAUKEE.

This is one of the important educational problems now being digested by public thought, and the drift of opinion seems to be in its favor. That our institutions are in danger from lack of education among the masses of the people is too apparent in the manner in which political campaigns are conducted throughout the country; and if there is any form of compulsion that will reach the root of the evil it is the right and duty of the State to exercise it. But it seems to me that most of the public discussions have not reached the question in all its branches and bearings. The arguments are generally taken, *pro* and *con*, on the right of the State—under a republican government—to so far interfere with individual liberty. To me this cry of "individual liberty" is the watchword of anarchy. Individuals have no rights that can stand as a bar to legislation for the public good.

Admitted that the education of the people is essential to the well-being of the State; and its kindred proposition that States have a right to preserve their own existence, and the right of the State to enact such laws as shall secure this essential, cannot be gainsaid. Besides, the right is established by numerous precedents in every department of law, and can admit of no farther controversy.

But will a law compelling attendance upon public schools, such as they are, be a "living letter," or will it in any great measure accomplish the end for which it is enacted? In my opinion a compulsory law will prove of little value, with us, unless the State goes farther, and assumes other rights and duties so intimately related to this that they cannot be ignored. There are conditions and necessities precedent to the question of attending school, which must be looked after before such attendance can be enforced without proving a detriment instead of a benefit. First, the State must provide *good* schools within the reach of all. It is notorious that there are hundreds of district schools in our State, where the children of a neighborhood gather, free from parental restraint, to take their first lessons in profanity and rowdyism, under the active leadership of representatives from vicious and low-bred families. Such schools have no relation to education except in its worse sense, and to compel parents to put their children under such influences would be simply outrageous, as tending greatly to their injury. True, under our endowed system, there should be no such schools; but as a fact they do exist, and whether through poverty or parsimony of the people, is not material to the question. When schools worthy of patronage are established in every district, then will this ugly feature of compulsion be removed.

But there exists another obstacle to the practical working of the law of compulsion, which, to meet will require more radical legislation. There are families in almost every district in the State, who are actually too poor to clothe their children to attend school in winter. It may be said that in our free land no man need be so poor as this implies, or if too inefficient or improvident to provide for his family he has no business to have one. But, as yet our politico-social economists have not reached a solution of this tremendous problem of poverty and procreation; so at present we have only to recognize the fact, that, as a rule, children are given,—or perhaps I might more properly say, *accepted*—in the proportion that wealth,—or the means of caring for them,—is denied. Now shall the State appear in the *role* of a bailiff to drive these ragged and barefoot children of poverty to school in the snow and bitter cold of winter, where they will be objects of pity

or derision to their more fortunate fellow pupils? Or shall these be excepted from the operation of the law? If so, the law defeats its own end, for these poor children, whose only hope is the common school, are the very ones intended to be reached by this proposed legislative interference. I see but one way over this difficulty. If the State must educate its future citizens as a matter of safety, it must not only furnish them good schools, but it must provide them with the means whereby they may reap the advantages there afforded. It must take its children where it finds them, and with its strong arm remove every obstacle that parental poverty, ignorance, indifference, or viciousness has placed in the way of their mental and moral growth, and cease its kindly offices toward them only when they have attained the full moral and mental stature of useful citizens.

The school law, as now in force, authorizes the District Board to furnish books for children whose parents are too poor to buy them. But books are often the least of their needs. To derive any benefit from attendance at school a child must be comfortably fed and clothed. *Boots* may, and frequently are, pre-essential to *books*. But there is no public fund to draw on for the former. It is vain to expect good intellectual and moral results while the physical necessities are neglected. In war, a State needs sound bodies, in peace both sound bodies and sound minds; because the latter cannot exist without the former. Here, then, must the work of the State begin. Any legislation looking to the mental, and ignoring the physical well being will fail of its purpose. All the causes, therefore, which effect the moral or mental status of the citizen, from birth to the time when his character is fixed are, in this view of the question, proper subjects for legislative control. I do not see how we can escape this conclusion. It will be objected that we have too many laws already;—that we are governed too much. True; but the greater part of our laws are of a penal character, and I propose to substitute laws that will *prevent* crime for those which *punish* it. For every law that will be added to the statute book, two will be taken therefrom. But how apply the legislative remedy? The State must become sponsor for its future citizens, and be to them at all times a beneficent guardian, where the will or the means of the natural parent are inadequate to their needs. If it can rightfully delegate parental authority to a teacher for six hours of the twenty-four, it can delegate that authority for the remaining eighteen hours, whenever the welfare of the child may demand.

Let the fund for public education be increased. Let a certain portion, as now, be devoted to the support of the public school proper, and another portion to furnishing the children of the poor with means to enable them to share in the benefits of the school. A compulsory law with the addenda that I have hinted at, will, I think, work to a good purpose. The condition of parents with reference to their ability to provide for their children will be a matter of legal inquiry, and that false pride, which is mixed up with the most abject American poverty, will not be allowed to stand in the way, as it often otherwise would, of receiving this State charity, and of the consequent educational interests of the child.

THE SCHOOL OF EXPERIENCE.

Happily there is a school, a hard school, with stern, uncompromising teachers, in which many of the errors of early education are corrected; and that school in which the life-long work of education is carried on all must attend. Willingly or unwillingly, the school of experience we must attend. Some of us learn indifferently well the useful lessons taught there; some of us are dullards, who never advance; some of us are apt and attentive; and, as in all schools, those who learn readily are quickly promoted. How to learn in this hard school is the great art of living. People speak of this school, most erroneously, as being open only to those who have passed the bounds of childhood; but the baby when it bumps its head has taken its first lesson in the

school of experience; and if this important truth were only recognized, there would be less of the folly of attempting to teach experience by proxy. "Experience is no more transferrble in morals than in art," and the earlier a child is permitted to acquire for himself that which . no one can transfer to him, the better—the more readily will he learn, the more permanent will be the lessons.

Especially is this true of girls, or rather especially is it necessary to insist upon this in regard to girls; for to put a girl early to the school of experience requires us to deny our tenderness somewhat. It is so natural to hope that our dear-bought knowledge in that hard school may suffice for all her needs, at least until she is old enough to learn for herself; which is exactly like saying no one should go into the water before learning to swim.—*Home and School*, (*Louisville, Ky.*)

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENCY.

BY MICHAEL KIRWAN, MANITOWOC.

[Paper read before the State Teachers' Association, December 29, 1874.]

Educators universally recognize the necessity for school supervision and the examination of teachers; the general public dimly see the need of these measures, without having any well-defined opinions respecting their enforcement. Neither educators nor the people at large unanimously prefer any one plan of superintendence to all others.

Some of our political institutions are too recent to command the respect and bind the allegiance of our citizens, and too weak to awe aggressive legislators.

The perpetuity of the county superintendency is not assured by a wide-spread popular reverence for it. No inconsiderable number of the persons who occupy high educational positions, grant it nothing more than the poor courtesy of formal recognition and what they deem charitable forbearance. The people regard it with indifference. County boards of supervisors rigidly repress any tendency to extravagance that may be inherent in it by placing it on half pay. Bills providing for its abolition are introduced at almost every meeting of the legislature. Retiring superintendents fire parting volleys at it, and the vigor of their assaults is inversely proportional to their chances of re-instatement in the distant future. A little band of qualified electors who were once pronounced qualified instructors, fondly sigh for the restoration of the town superintendency and their lost honors. In the ranks of the opposition there are not wanting those who are honored by, if they do not adorn, their station, and who account the old *regime* preferable to new because it had greater flexibility, and was more readily adjustable to circumstances. Editors, now and then, feel impelled to denounce the exactions of the office, and dub its incumbents "the high and mighty." If these officers are embodiments of might, a momentary sweep of retrospection suffices to show the democratic pre-eminence of the nineteenth century.

Granted, that some system of supervision and examination is indispensable, shall the town, the county or the state be the unit of that system?

A scheme of state supervision, intended to accomplish all or more than that which is now attempted by the county superintendency, would possess marked attractions, and hold out splendid promises, which seem susceptible of fulfillment to the hope, no less than to the ear. If the possibilities of such a scheme have been determined by a practical test in any of our states, I am not aware of its results, and shall not undertake its discussion here.

Wisconsin tried the town superintendency and abandoned it because it was farcical in its operation and calamitous in its consequences. Older and wealthier states cannot make that plan effective, for it is either very expensive or very useless. Massachusetts had, in 1871, a statute which provided for town supervision, and left its adoption optional with the people. Not more than forty cities and towns in the commonwealth availed themselves of the act; the rest had no supervision because they could not afford to pay for the

services of competent persons. A subsequent law provides that contiguous towns may unite in employing a town superintendent. This law may not contemplate the total rejection of the town system and the substitution of the county superintendency, but it opens the way to a compromise in which the former plan must undergo such modifications as to lose its distinctive character. Wisconsin has now sixty-three county superintendents, who receive an average salary of about $675 a year. It is complained, and with justice, too, that some of them are incompetent. There are about eight hundred and twenty-one towns in the state, requiring under the town system as many superintendents, whose average salary would probably be less than $50 a year. Now, if at the compensation first above stated we have hitherto failed to get sixty-three men who are fully qualified for the superintendency, how are we to secure thirteen times as many at an average salary only two twenty-sevenths as large as that now paid?

Friends as well as enemies of the county superintendency are dissatisfied with the present status of the office; the former seek to improve, the latter to abolish it. Its opponents allege that some of the incumbents are unqualified, partial, partisan, and paid more than their services are worth; its friends cannot deny that the charges have some foundation in truth. Many an examination is such in name only; what is called school supervision is sometimes nothing more than school visiting; a certificate issued in one county is no guarantee to its holder that he will be licensed in another, nor is his rejection by one examiner any proof that another will not duly certify to his fitness. Notwithstanding these incongruities and imperfections, the superintendency does not deserve to be overthrown. I introduce competent testimony on this point:

In the report of the State Superintendent of Minnesota, for the year 1869, it is stated that "the non-attendance has decreased eight per cent. during the year, a result which proves the wisdom of county supervision."

Hon. W. D. Henkle, Commissioner of Common Schools for the State of Ohio, in his report for the year ending August 31, 1839, says: "The demand for county supervision is on the increase. Resolutions passed by educational associations and teachers' institutes, and the assent to these resolutions of the intelligent friends of education, clearly indicate that something more is needed to infuse new life into the schools, especially those of the rural districts."

Hon. J. P. Wickersham, Superintendent of Common Schools for the State of Pennsylvania, says in his report for the same year: "County superintendents have been appointed during the last sixteen years—since 1854—and wherever persons well qualified have filled the office, it has done great good and is popular. The work thus done cannot, it is believed, be so well accomplished by any other agency."

The Superintendent of Public Instruction for Indiana says in his report of 1870: "Every successful state has been led by necessity to adopt county and city superintendency. Some states have adopted it, and, fearful of its expense, have for a time abandoned it; but, finding it indispensable, have permanently resumed it. The system is now incorporated into the laws of twenty-three of the states and territories. The success of our common schools depends more on efficient county superintendence than on any other one instrumentality."

Hon. Warren Johnson, State Superintendent of Common Schools for Maine, says: "The agency of county supervision has added 25 per cent. to the value of the school work."

Hon. Newton Bateman, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, says: "I am persuaded that county supervision cannot be dispensed with without detriment to the free-school interests of the state. I believe that its benefits are so obvious and manifold that it ought to have and will have a permanent place in the final adjustment of the working forces in every state school law—that experience has abundantly demonstrated its

claim to be regarded as an indispensable part of the true American system of school supervision."

Hon. Thos. W. Harvey, State Commissioner of Common Schools, Ohio, writes in 1871: "Practically our country schools are without supervision. There being no one in each county to organize, counsel and direct, these schools are frequently a chaos of misapplied good purposes, wasteways of unused or misdirected energies. While our cities and towns have made rapid progress in everything that concerns education, our rural districts have failed to keep pace with them, and in some localities have actually retrograded. Supervision has ceased to be an experiment. It is now the settled policy of the states that have once adopted it, and we confidently trust that Ohio will soon follow their example."

These quotations show the estimation in which county superintendence is held by men who know whereof they speak.

Should we accept as conclusive the argument that the office ought to be set aside for the reason that it has numerous defects, consistency would compel a like declaration respecting our common schools, which are far from perfect. One-half the teachers employed in them have not a sound knowledge of reading, spelling, arithmetic and grammar, and are paid more than their services are worth if those services be valued with reference to a high standard of intelligence. The average age of teachers in this State is little, if any, more than twenty-two years. Hundreds of them are boys and girls, whom business men would not entrust with the transaction of important affairs. The character of their work in the school-room is quite in keeping with their years. The number of teachers' certificates issued in Wisconsin during the year ending Aug. 31, 1873, exclusive of State certificates and those issued in cities, was 7,619; of which all but 636 were of the third grade. The School Code says, "Third-grade certificates were intended for temporary licenses, to be granted to persons of limited attainments and little experience." If this is the proper standard by which to measure the holders of these certificates, are our schools more efficient than the superintendency? Yet, inadequate as they are, their destruction would inaugurate an era of intolerance and proclaim the downfall of the republic. A general reduction of teachers' wages for the purpose of eqalizing their labor and its compensation, would be followed by a general desertion of the ablest and the enrollment of undisciplined, unserviceable levies to fill their places.

Judicious amendment of the law which created the superintendency and defined its powers and duties is wiser than its repeal. Let the first step toward its improvement be to require every superintendent to hold a five-years' State certificate, and, before granting this certificate, let the State Board of Examiners test applicants' ability to teach as fully as scholarship and a knowledge of the theory of teaching are now put to the proof. This will insure to teachers the inspection of their work and the issue of certificates by members of their own profession, or, at least, by those who have been in that profession long enough to obtain a recognition and some acknowledgment of their ability. Lawyers are not appointed to examine candidates for ecclesiastical preferment, nor are physicians called to determine the acquirements of those who seek admission to the bar. Yet public opinion does not seem to hold it inadmissible for members of any profession whatever to pass upon the qualifications of those engaged in a calling where solid reputation cannot be achieved without special training and the knowledge that comes of experience only; a calling as honorable, if *not* as honored, as law, medicine, or theology.

Next, let superintendents be paid a reasonable amount for their services, and let the law definitely fix their compensation instead of leaving its adjustment to county boards of supervisors. As nearly as I can determine from available information the average salaries of county clerks and treasurers in this state, the former are paid $1,114 and the latter

$1,096 a year. In many counties those officers receive twice and in some instances more than three times the pay of superintendents. In only three counties does it appear that superintendents are paid more than the other salaried officers. One-fourth or one-third of the salaries paid superintendents goes to defray their traveling expenses, leaving their net wages less than the compensation of good tradesmen, and often compelling them to combine other business with their official duties. Probably in not more than one-half the counties can they afford to give undivided attention to matters pertaining to their office. Some of them are more engrossed with bills, accounts current, and equation of payments than with other divisions of the subject of arithmetic, and the present writer duly certifies that this statement is true according to his own knowledge and belief. Some of them teach during a considerable portion of the year. Some are clergymen, whose spiritual functions do not cease on their acceptance of temporal obligations. Some are editors, and their papers appear just as regularly and prove quite as interesting and influential during their term of office as before. Some are lawyers who cannot sacrifice practice and pelf to affairs of secondary importance, and who therefore decide to retain clients at the risk of losing constituents. Some are physicians, who must see that the lives of their patients be preserved though the patience of teachers and school patrons be lost; the doctor must endeavor to prevent travelers from crossing that bourn which precludes return, whether the superintendent ever reaches the boundary line of his own county or not. This mode of official service should be changed. Superintendents should be paid enough to enable them to devote their whole time to school work and then an equivalent for their wages should be exacted. The report issued by our superintendent of public instruction in 1878, states the average wages of male teachers in the country districts of this State at $43.38 per month. I suspect that this average includes the salaries paid to many principals of graded schools organized under the district system and situated in villages or cities, and that it is, therefore, too high. Admitting, however, that it is correctly stated, and assuming that those teachers pay $10 a month for board, their earnings are diminished to $38.38 a month—a compensation less than that paid to good choppers and teamsters in the lumbering regions during the winter of the year covered by the report. In the address which Whitelaw Reid delivered at the reception recently given by the teachers of New York city, he related an anecdote of a soldier whose excuse for intoxication and neglect of duty was that people have no right to expect all the moral virtues and graces for thirteen dollars a month. We commend the story to parties who murmur at the inefficiency of superintendents and teachers. In the same address Mr. Reid proves by statistics that those who give instruction in the primary schools of New York are paid less than hod-carriers. Since it is conceded that teachers suffer a grievance in this respect, it cannot be consistently denied that superintendents are wronged in tne same particular.

People lose confidence in a superintendent whose education is known to be inferior to that of applicants whom he examines, and the applicants can hardly be expected to yield him the full measure of professional respect. If it is reasonable to insist that his attainments and character shall be as high as those of the best teachers under his supervision, simple justice demands a corresponding equality in the matter of wages. The pittance remaining to a superintendent after deducting his traveling expenses from his nominal salary is sometimes less than one-half what is paid in his county to a principal of a graded school. But, unless judicious conditions of eligibility be established an increase of salary will only cause a more determined scrambling among politicians, who will then more than ever covet the office for the sake of the spoils; and their success would be its deep disgrace. This degradation will be rendered impossible if

candidates for the place be required to obtain State certificates, for, it is well understood that the individuals who sway small caucuses and local conventions are usually impotent in an intellectual struggle, and that their supremacy in the one contest presages ignoble rout if they venture to engage in the other.

The adoption of a plan prescribing conditions of eligibility to the superintendency would render advisable a change in the present manner of choosing the officer. Counties should then be free to obtain talent of the best order from any quarter whatever, and the selection of superintendents be delegated to some administrative power possessing facilities for corresponding with and engaging persons competent and willing to serve. This duty can be safely and properly devolved upon the county board of supervisors, and that body can appoint the superintendent as the district board now engages the teacher. Some of the objections urged against compulsory school attendance, namely, that it is not in harmony with the genius of our polity, that it tends toward centralization and evinces distrust of the American people, are hurled at every scheme which seeks to make the superintendency an appointive office. These objections, if valid, impugn the motives of the statesmen who framed the Federal constitution; since the president is not elected by direct popular vote, and the power of choosing United States senators is vested in the state legislatures. The argument which in the name of the American people opposes the appointment of county superintendents, on the ground that the measure is not radically democratic, should not ignore the American eagle's claim to consideration in the premises, and would not be weakened by invoking that emblematic ravener to expand his terminal plumage and scream in condemnation of the wicked project.

So long as the superintendency remains an elective office just so long will it fail to secure men of ripe experience to fill it, because popular caprice or the hostility aroused by an impartial discharge of duty will remove the incumbent before he can get that experience. However mortifying the admission may be to the pride we feel in our political system, and however subversive of our claim to general intelligence, it is patent to every observer that in the disposal of county offices a majority of the electors are influenced more by party dictation and a desire to reward some hero of the hour than by any considerations of competency and ultimate public weal. The favorite of to-day is often the defaulter of to-morrow. The official who declines to sink his manhood for the purpose of furthering partisan intrigue or personal ambition is frequently superseded by some one who is more pliant in the hands of party managers and less given to nice distinctions when his honor is concerned. Strict observance of obligations imposed by the oath of office is as fatal to official tenure as marked incompetency is. Offices whose duties consist of mere clerical routine are not sensitive to frequent changes of administration, but the superintendency can not be classed with those. Its duties are peculiar, and demand not only a good education but also an intimate acquaintance with the wants of each school, and a knowledge of individual character and ability that cannot be acquired without long experience and permanent employment. Before this knowledge is measurably gained the favor of the sovereign people is transferred to some new aspirant whose principal recommendation is that his record chronicles no performances which perish in the offence they give.

What is termed the principle of rotation in office doubtless exercises a wholesome influence in many instances, and occasionally works very beneficial changes of superintendents; yet, the wisdom of its sweeping, unrestricted application to the superintendency may well be questioned.

The selection of the superintendent by the county board of supervisors would be superior to the existing mode in the following respects:

1. Political opinions and party affiliations would have less weight than now in determining the choice. The engage-

ment of the officer would be a regular business transaction. Superintendents are now elected at the same time that State officers are chosen, and on such occasions the heading of a ticket is scanned more closely than the names of candidates.

2. Continued employment would be mainly dependent on the character of the services rendered; and this condition would operate as an incentive to exertion on the part of the superintendent.

3. It would remove the necessity of participating in petty political campaigns which are too often so conducted as to be humiliating to self-respect and repugnant to honor. There is no good reason why superintendents, more than teachers, should be spattered with the mud of politics. How many principals of our graded or high schools, or professors in our normal schools, would continue to teach if they were biennially assailed by little demagogues, and by obscure newspapers that are more interested in the accumulation of job-work than in the advancement of education? And in the whole body of educators is the superintendent the only individual so closely related to the pachyderm as to be insensible to the whips and scorns of election time?

In the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1870, it is stated that laws providing for the appointment of superintendents were passed in Pennsylvania in 1854, the system continuing up to the date of the report; in Tennessee in 1867; in Alabama and Mississippi in 1868; in Florida in 1869; and I am informed that they are now appointed in Minnesota by the county boards of supervisors and required to hold State certificates or diplomas from the State University. In some of the States named, the State Superintendent makes the appointments, in others the Governor appoints, and his appointees are confirmed by the Senate, and, in others still, county boards of education select. The details of the various modes of appointment are not minutely described in the commissioner's report.

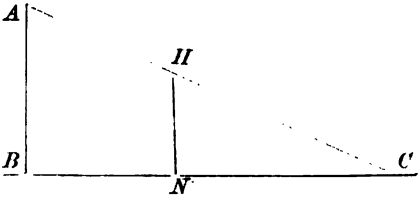
To recapitulate.—The suggestions contained in this paper for the improvement of the superintendency are—

1. That no one shall be eligible to the office who does not hold a State certificate.

2. The payment of adequate salaries which shall be definitely fixed by law.

3. The appointment of superintendents by county boards of supervisors.

A Solution.—To find the values of x in the general equation $x^2 + 2px = q$.



Draw $A\,B$ at right angles to $B\,C$, and join $A\,C$. From H drop the perpendicular $H\,N$. Assume $B\,C = 2\,A\,B$. Place $A\,B = x + p$, $H\,N = p$, then $B\,C = 2(x + p)$ and $N\,C = 2\,p$. Hence $(x + p)^2 =$ area of the triangle $A\,B\,C$ and $p^2 =$ area of the triangle $H\,N\,C$. Assume the area of the trapezoid $A\,H\,N\,B = q$; then the area of the triangle $A\,B\,C = q + p^2$; consequently $(x + p)^2 = q + p^2$.

$\therefore x + p = \pm\sqrt{q + p^2}\ \therefore x = -p \pm \sqrt{q + p^2}$

L. Campbell.

Lessons in Memory.—Of all the exercises which most favor ignorance in teachers who are not duly prepared, and which inspire most *ennui* in students, the worst are those mnemonic exercises in which the master acts a purely passive part, and the pupil an automatic one. It is said that by such means we develop the memory of children; but for this no special effort is needed, as the culture of memory, like that of attention, is secured by the activity of the other faculties. It is more particularly in exercising the judgment that we enrich the memory with useful things. The knowledge we gather in the first years of life we owe to observation and experience—the best of masters—and it is more profoundly engraved upon the memory than all the memorized lessons of college. The mother-tongue is acquired without learning any thing by heart.

Those who, in teaching their pupils to speak a foreign language, give them words

to learn, to form into phrases, commit a triple error. In the first place, the child does not learn to talk by passing from words to phrases. In the second place, in order to speak, he learns to understand what is said to him. In the third place, no mother ever attempted such a proceeding: the instinct of imitation alone suffices the child in learning to speak.

The expression of thought is not aided by learning extracts from authors, because, for the most part, these extracts contain not a phrase or an idea that would aid in conversation. In this work, the attention is directed exclusively to words, and the memory is aided by their juxtaposition. By means of repetition they are revived in the mind in their order of succession, each word suggesting that which follows. The more we repeat the lesson in order to retain it, the more easy and rapid the recitation, the more the text escapes analysis and the will. Excellent as the exercise may be in pronunciation and oratory, it is inefficacious as a means of learning to speak. To learn a model by heart, no more teaches to speak, than tracing a drawing-model teaches to draw.—CLAUDE MARCEL, *in Pop. Science Monthly for February.*

MEETING OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

[From the Oshkosh Daily Northwestern.]

A meeting of County Superintendents was held in the Normal School building at Oshkosh, Dec. 22 and 23, 1874. Present, Prof. Graham, Pres. Albee, Supts. Burnham of Waupaca, Minaghan of Calumet, Chipman of Waushara, Lynch of Brown, Spencer of Green Lake, Flanagan of Outagamie, Morrison of Portage, and Kirwan of Manitowoc.

The meeting organized on Tuesday morning. Mr. Burnham was chosen chairman, and Mr. Kirwan secretary.

Prof. Graham stated the object of the meeting: to devise some means of making the institute work more effective and continuous; a plan of work could be arranged for two or more years, the work done at each session to be as full and thorough as possible in that which might be attempted, and in advance of that done at preceding sessions; the efforts put forth by members of an institute to be concentrated on a few branches in which real progress could thus be made; examinations to have some reference to work done at institutes and to be more uniform than at present.

The utility of short term institutes, length of session, character and scope of the work to be attempted, the desirability of a law requiring teachers to attend institutes, and the relations which teacher's associations should bear to institutes, were selected as topics for discussion, and and the meeting proceeded to consider each of these subjects in the order named. Full statements of opinions were given, and views were interchanged and compared. Immediately before the close of the morning session, the following committees were appointed by the chair:

On Length of Institute Session—Messrs. Minaghan, Morrison and Albee.

On Programme for Institute—Messrs. Kirwan, Burnham, Chipman and Morrison.

On Compulsory Attendance of Teachers—Messrs. Spencer, Lynch and Flanagan.

On Teacher's Associations—Messrs. Burnham, Graham and Kirwan.

These committees were instructed to report at 7. P. M.

The afternoon session began at 2 o'clock. The discussion of the subjects which were under advisement in the morning was resumed. Class work was held to produce better results at institutes than are reached by the presentation of subjects in lectures. Teachers take a few disconnected notes on the lectures but make little use of them. It was not deemed best to have many evening lectures in connection with institutes; the members were thereby prevented from making the preparation required for the work of the following day; an occasional lecture which citizens in general, as well as teachers attend is quite as valuable for the interest which it leads the former to take in educational affairs as for its educational influence on the teachers.

The order of mental capacity to which institute exercises should be adapted was

next considered. These exercises should not be of a character to severely try the ability of the ablest members, nor so elementary as to afford discipline to none but the weakest. Adapt the work to the wants of the district schools and it will then do the greatest good to the greatest number. Grade work is not practicable in a five days' institute. Conductors should not allow a few proficient members to answer all the questions and ignore those who are less advanced. When conductors and pupils become acquainted questions can be so varied and assigned in the same exercise as to lead all to take part.

Examinations which are partially based on the work done at institutes should be held at the close of the sessions, and superintendents would be glad to be assisted by conductors in oral examination exercises. To secure this help institutes should close on Thursday evening and examinations begin on Friday morning. The policy of holding examinations just before institute session was condemned.

At 7 o'clock in the evening the convention assembled to receive the report of committees. The committee on Length of Institute Session presented the following report which was read and adopted:

COMMITTEE REPORTS.

The committee appointed to consider the length of time most desirable for the county institutes, respectfully recommend:

First. That in order to secure a better culture in "common school" branches for the teachers, institutes in the several counties be held each year for periods of two or four weeks.

Second. That the county superintendent of schools shall be responsible for an efficient conduct of the exercises by a proper person, except during such time as the Normal conductor of Institutes may be present.

Third. That we petition the Board of Regents of Normal Schools to grant to Superintendents who conduct such Institutes in accordance with the directions of said Board, a reasonable compensation for services. Respectfully submitted,

W. B. MINAGHAN,
G. S. ALBEE,
J. O. MORRISON,
Committee.

The report of the Committee on Programme was verbally stated by the chairman of the committee, and gave rise to a spirited discussion. After the several objections had been offered the report was accepted and further action upon it was deferred until the written draft of it should be laid before the meeting.

The Committee on Compulsory Attendance of Teachers offered a report which was read. Its adoption was opposed, the report was recommitted and the committee requested to report again at 9 o'clock the next morning.

The meeting then adjourned to the hour appointed for receiving the report of the last named committee.

Pursuant to adjournment the convention met on Wednesday morning and listened to the following report of the Committee on Compulsory Attendance, which was unanimously adopted:

The committee to whom was referred the subject of Institute Attendance would respectfully recommend that it should be made obligatory upon teachers to attend institutes provided by the State; and that the county superintendent should be prohibited from granting certificates to teachers who refuse or neglect to attend said institutes; unless they can give satisfactory reasons for non attendance, such reasons to be presented in writing and kept on file in the office of county superintendent.

A. A. SPENCER,
H. M. LYNCH,
H. FLANAGAN.

The following written report of the Committee on Programme was presented and adopted:

The committee to whom the consideration of a programme for short term institutes was referred, reports as follows:

The work done in a large number of the public schools of our State can be made satisfactory only by improving the scholarship of teachers, and leading them to

comprehend and adopt more intelligent methods of teaching. The Institute is, in the opinion of your committee, the only educational agency through which the great body of those teachers can at present be reached, and the necessity of continuing and extending institute work is therefore apparent and imperative.

That institutes may be made as effective as possible, your committee recommends:

1. That the efforts of both conductors and the members enrolled may be concentrated more than heretofore, and that, to make this concentration possible, the consideration of all the third-grade branches shall require the time of two institute sessions in each county. Reading, Orthography, Penmanship, and Arithmetic to be taught at every session, and, in addition to these subjects, either Grammar or Geography to be taken up, the two subjects last named to alternate by sessions; two hours each day to be given to the consideration of methods of teaching and school management, a portion of these two hours being devoted to such presentation of either United States History or Civil Government as may be best suited to the wants of members in each institute, and these two studies to alternate by sessions as recommended in the treatment of Grammar and Geography.

2. That Prof. Graham be requested to prepare a syllabus for short-term institutes, and to send a printed copy of this syllabus to each county superintendent.

3. That each superintendent issue a circular, embodying the plan of work outlines in the syllabus and calling the attention of teachers to the necessity of making all possible preparation for that work; and that a copy of the circular prepared by each superintendent be sent to each teacher in his county at least three months before the date at which the institute for that county is to begin.

4. That institutes be organized on Monday, and that examinations connected with them shall not be held prior to the close of the institute sessions.

5. That superintendents keep a record of the attendance at institutes, and that teachers who do not attend shall be required to state to superintendents, in writing the reasons for their absence, which reasons the superintendents shall put on record.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

MICHAEL KIRWAN,
J. BURNHAM,
J. O. MORRISON,
THEO. S. CHIPMAN,
Committee.

Then ensued the reading and adoption of the report made by the Committee on Teachers' Associations.

On motion the chair appointed Messrs. Graham, Albee and Burnham a committee to call future meetings of superintendents.

Prof. Graham and Pres. Albee spoke of the probable effect of the meeting on subsequent institute work and other educational movements, and of the interests which teachers, superintendents, normal and district schools hold in common. Prof. Graham in concluding his remarks wished superintendents an abundance of that happiness which is derived from hard work.

Messrs. Spencer, Burnham, and Chipman responded on behalf of the superintendents, and the chair then declared the meeting adjourned *sine die.*

MICHAEL KIRWAN,
Secretary.

HABITS.—The proper molding of character is beyond the art of books. Books indeed have much to do in giving tone to character; but character, which consists in habits fixed upon natural temperament, can develop only in action. Now habit, we know, is "aptitude or facility *acquired by frequent repetition;*" natural temperament is that original bias of disposition inherent in our birth, influenced oftentimes by surrounding circumstances, and always modified by habit. Habits are good or they are bad; but in forming character our object is to cultivate good habits; and not alone habits of body—though these are not without a marked effect upon character—but also habits of thought and habits of feeling, which in-

fluence those actions, and that course of conduct by which character manifests itself, and does its work, whether for good or evil. (*From November "Home and School," Louisville, Ky.*)

FORMS OF KNOWLEDGE.—In the ideal university, a man should be able to obtain instruction in all forms of knowledge. Now, by "forms of knowledge" I mean the great classes of things knowable; of which the first, in logical, though not in natural, order is knowledge relating to the scope and limits of the mental faculties of man; a form of knowledge which, in its positive aspect, answers pretty much to logic and part of psychology, while, on its negative and critical side, it corresponds with metaphysics.

A second class comprehends all that knowledge which relates to man's welfare, so far as it is determined by his own acts, or what we call his conduct. It answers to moral and religious philosophy. Practically, it is the most directly valuable of all forms of knowledge, but speculatively, it is limited and criticised by that which precedes and by that which follows it in my order of enumeration.

A third class embraces knowledge of the phenomena of the universe, as that which lies about the individual man; and of the rules which those phenomena are observed to follow in the order of their occurrence, which we term the laws of Nature.

This is what ought to be called natural science, or physiology, though those terms are hopelessly diverted from such a meaning; and it includes all exact knowledge of natural fact, whether mathematical, physical, biological, or social.—*Popular Science Monthly.*

LIVE to be useful. Live to give light. Live to accomplish the end for which you were made, and quietly and steadily shine on, trying to do good.

THE remark of a severe lady, who says that male is only mule spelled wrong, is supplemented by the New Orleans *Picayune* with the declaration that, according to the Latin proclivities a woman is *mulier.*

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

DISTRICTS AND DISTRICT MEETINGS.

Question. Is the vote of a district valid and binding if not recorded?

Answer. It is rendered valid not by being recorded, but by being passed legally. The record is merely evidence of its passage. If there be no record, or if the record be lost, the fact may be shown some other way. All action of the district should however be immediately and carefully recorded; and any omission of record of action at a meeting should be corrected at the next meeting if observed.

Q. Is not the vote of a district that the board shall not change text-books without permission binding?

A. Just as binding as a vote that they should not change their shirts without permission. It is a matter over which the district has no direct power. Still, the district may express an opinion on the subject, and it may be a good one, that the board would do well to heed.

Q. When a joint district changes its annual meeting from September to August, with which town clerk must the vote be filed?

A. The law does not prescribe. By analogy, it should be filed with the clerk to whom the full report is made. It will cut off all cavil and question if it is filed with each town clerk.

Q. Can the chairman of a district meeting vote unless there is a tie?

A. Of course he can, and should. He is but a voter in the chair.

Q. Must the director be chairman, if present?

A. He may appropriately call the meeting to order, but is not the permanent chairman, unless appointed—*i. e.*, elected. The first business of every school meeting is to fill the chair. (Sec. 19.)

Q. Can a district move the schoolhouse, (having voted to change the site,) by a "bee," if some are opposed?

A. This method of doing it is not objectionable if done with good feeling. If the majority wish to do it that way, the minority probably would not object, if

exempted from helping. But if there is serious opposition, it had better be done by contract.

Q. Can the board compel the minority to help, if the majority *vote* to do it by a "bee?"

A. They cannot. The law makes no provision for such action.

DISTRICT OFFICERS.

Q. Does a director vacate his office by refusing bail for the treasurer which the clerk approves?

A. Certainly not; each judges for himself, and the bail must be satisfactory to both.

Q. Does a district officer vacate his office by being absent most of the time, but returning home once in two or three weeks?

A. He does not; but if he is unable to perform his duties in consequence of his frequent absence, he might as well resign, or consent to be removed.

Q. Can the clerk be bondsman for the treasurer?

A. No, for he is to approve the bond, which implies a third person as bondsman.

Q. If a clerk appoints a deputy, who is responsible for the accuracy of his records, the clerk or the board?

A. The clerk of course.

Q. Must the treasurer keep a book, and what is the remedy if he refuses?

A. "The treasurer shall keep a book in which he shall enter all the moneys received and disbursed by him," etc. (Sec. 38.) If he refuses, let him be removed. (Sec. 124.)

DISTRICT BOARD.

Q. Our board has opened an evening school for instruction in book-keeping, there being no time for it in the day school; the teacher receives no extra compensation; the wood of the district is used. Is this legal? The instruction is free.

A. Not only legal but praiseworthy. The board may modify the rule or custom as to school hours, and may provide for instruction in other branches than those required by law. (Sections 52 and 55.)

Q. If the district votes to have a female teacher, and the board hires a male, who is responsible for his wages?

A. The board would be responsible individually to the teacher for damages, if the district would not accept his services; but if the school is recognized, and goes on as usual, the action of the board would be held to have been acquiesced in by the district.

Q. There was a tie in the vote of our district as to having a male or female teacher. Those for a female teacher, including the director, send only two children, and those for a male send nine, from 7 to 20 years of age. The board hired a male teacher but the director won't sign the contract, nor countersign any order to pay him. What shall we do?

A. The board had power to hire a male teacher. (Sec. 19, sub-section *twelfth*, and Sec. 42.) The consent of the director is not necessary, as a majority governs in such cases. The director may be compelled by *mandamus* to countersign orders legally drawn, or removed for willful neglect of duty.

Q. Can the board not only adopt a list of text-books, but procure them, and require all pupils not supplied to buy of them?

A. The board has no legal power to do more than adopt a list. There will possibly be some legislation this winter on the subject of text-books, but no law will be passed compelling anybody to buy from any particular source.

TAXES.

Q. Mr. A. moved from No. 6 to No. 9. While in No. 9 the annual assessment took place. Soon after, and before the annual meeting, he moved back into No. 6. Where should he pay tax on his personal property?

A. As a man upon moving into a district immediately becomes a voter therein (if a voter at all), and has the privilege of sending to school, it is equitable that he should be taxed in that district, on his personal property—which naturally goes with the person. If he moves out of a district after the *taxes are voted*, the case is different. A man is to be taxed in the same town or ward in which he is assess-

ed, but this provision is not extended by law to school districts.

Q. If a tax of a certain amount is voted, to be levied and collected in three specified annual installments, will it be legal to have the second and third installments collected without being voted over again?

A. I think so. The vote of the district on the subject stands as the will of the district, unless modified or rescinded. The clerk should return each year, the amount to be collected for that year.

Q. The clerk, by oversight, failed to return a tax for building a school-house in season to go into the roll this year; what can be done?

A. Either borrow the money (Sec. 114), and replace it with the tax, when finally collected, or raise a special tax, under section 64, and use the first tax, when collected, for general school purposes.

SCHOOL MONEY.

Q. How is school money apportioned?

A. This question is best answered in the words of the law:

Section 58. * * * It shall also be the duty of the town clerk to apportion the school moneys raised by the town and collected by the town treasurer, *on the third Monday of March*, and those received from the state, through the county treasurer, *on the third Monday of June* in each year, or as soon thereafter as the same shall be collected or received by the town treasurer, to the several districts and parts of districts within the town, in proportion to the number of children residing in each, over the age of four and under the age of twenty years, as the same shall appear from the last annual reports of their respective clerks.

Section 59. No money shall be apportioned to any district or part of a district, unless it shall appear by the report thereof, verified by the affidavit of the clerk of said district or part of a district, that a school has been taught therein, by a duly qualified teacher, for at least five months during the year ending at the date of such report, and that all school moneys received during that year from the income of the school fund, have been applied to the payment of the wages of a legally qualified teacher.

The points to be noticed are: 1st, that the school money to be apportioned may accrue from three different sources—(*a*) that voted by the town, if any, for school purposes; (*b*) that arising from the tax levied upon the town for school purposes by the county board, which must be not less than the amount last apportioned from the income of the school fund; (*c*) that coming from this source—that is, "received from the State, through the county treasurer," as apportioned by the State Superintendent.

2d. *No money* is to be apportioned to *any* district that has not maintained school in the previous school year, by a qualified teacher, at least 5 months (100 days), nor unless all the money received during that year, from the income of the school fund, has been applied to the payment of the wages of such a teacher. The law is quite stringent in this matter. Provision is made for cases of hardship.

3. It is to be noted carefully that school money is apportioned to districts entitled to receive it, not in proportion to the valuation of property, not on the number of children attending school, but on the number of school age—between 4 and 20—residing in the district, as shown by the last report; and this means further those who had a legal residence in the district, not those who happened to be staying there at the time.

Q. Is drainage money subject to the same restrictions?

A. This is a difficult question to answer. The school law was first enacted, and section 59 lays down a general policy as to the apportionment of school money. It is safest to hold that section 17 of the Drainage Law (Chap. 151, of 1869, p. 151, School Code) is to be interpreted in accordance with section 59 of the school law, until by legislation or judicial decision it is determined otherwise.

RIGHTS OF PUPILS.

Q. Has not a person over 20 a right to attend school free, if enumerated in the school census taken just before arriving at that age?

A. The right begins at 4 and ceases at 20, without any exception whatever—otherwise than that the right may be forfeited or suspended, for cause. The fact of the enumeration of a person under the

circumstances you mention, in no way affects the question. Of course there may be cases where it is quite right to allow persons over 20 to attend, on payment of a merely nominal tuition fee.

Q. Has not a boy driven from home a right to attend school in another district free?

A. Not a legal right, necessarily. It might be very proper and an act of humanity to admit him, but again it might not; he might very possibly be more appropriately sent to the Industrial School at Waukesha. Neither a school district nor a school board can appropriately undertake the duties of police officers, or of charitable or reformatory institutions.

DUTIES OF TEACHERS.

Q. Is the teacher justified in coming to school after nine, or in going away in school hours?

A. Although not specified in the contract, he is required by common and well known custom, to spend at least six hours in teaching, and to begin at nine and close at four, with the usual recess at noon. A failure to do this would violate his contract, and would justify at least a proportionate deduction of wages.

Q. Is it the duty of the teacher to build fires?

A. It is rather the duty of the board to provide for this. But in the country schools, where it has always been the usual custom for male teachers to do it, and where this fact is well known to the teacher, it will be quite proper for him to see to it, calling on the larger boys to help. If there are several large and trusty boys, it is not a burden for them to do it, in turn—nor for the girls to sweep. Such things should be understood before the school begins. Any misunderstanding about them is apt to cause trouble and injure the school.

Q. If a contract for five months reads: "20 days teaching constitute a month," can holidays be included?

A. Strictly construed, they would not; but if it appeared that board and teacher understood the matter differently, it might be fair to compromise. From the 14th of November to the last of March, however, there are more than 100 days left, after deducting all Saturdays, Sundays and holidays; so that the teacher would still get through his school in less than five calendar months, which is certainly not a hardship.

CERTIFICATES.

Q. Is the same process necessary in annulling a "license" as a regular certificate?

A. Yes; the law knows nothing of a "license" as different from a certificate. A teacher has the same right of notice of intended annulment, whatever may be the character of his certificate.

Q. Can a county superintendent legally refuse a certificate to a teacher because he did not attend the last institute?

A. A superintendent has no such power, nor do I think that he ought to have. A superintendent is quite right, however, in looking sharply after the qualifications and work of those who do not attend. Such teachers are usually, though not necessarily, "poor sticks." A superintendent *may* be a "poor stick" himself, and his institute of a corresponding character.

QUESTION UNDER THE "DECISION."

Since the "decision" printed in the last number of the JOURNAL was first made and became known, several questions similar to the one below have been asked:

Q. Under the decision of the Supreme Court can a school board make a rule that all pupils in the same class shall take all the studies of the class, (unless exempted on request), and enforce the rule by suspension?

A. Since the decision covers only the point that a teacher may not inflict corporal punishment upon a pupil who refuses to take a certain study which his father has directed him not to take, and points out that it is not designed to interfere with the power of the board to "make all needful rules and regulations for the organization, gradation and government of the school," etc., it may be held that the board still has the power in question. It is believed that most teachers of large experience will concur in the opinion that such a rule is necessary, while they

will as readily concede that cases may occur where exemption from the rule or a modification of it should be allowed as a favor.

Semi-Annual Session of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association.

The Wisconsin Teachers' Association convened in semi-annual session in the Assembly Chamber of the Capitol, Monday evening, Dec. 28th, 1874, and was called to order by President Emery.

Prayer was offered by Rev. J. B. Pradt.

In the absence of Secretary, Supt. Kirwan was chosen Secretary *pro tem.*

Papers on "Examinations" were read by Prof. Alexander Kerr and Prof. S. R. Winchell. At the conclusion of these the chair having announced the subject open for discussion;

Prof. S. H. Carpenter said that the main feature of good examinations is the preparation of judicious questions. These should be so framed as neither to indicate nor conceal the answer. Teachers who can frame questions of this character will succeed in making the examination what it ought to be; those who cannot do so will fail. When pupils are under examination the circumstances surrounding them should be such as not to distract attention from their work. Both written and oral answers should be required.

Rev. Mr. Pradt said that higher examinations should discipline the pupil to tell what he knows, though the circumstances be unusual or unfavorable.

Supt. MacAllister said a school is not thoroughly organized unless it has a regular system of examination. A class is not fully tested unless examined by an individual or a committee of whose manner of conducting the examination the class has had no previous knowledge. Both written and oral answers should be required. In the case of teachers a written examination is preferable, because as examining committees are usually constituted it is the only safeguard against fraud.

President Albee said that the training of pupils should have in view the ability to use their knowledge correctly and promptly under *any* circumstances, favorable or otherwise. When the pupil leaves school his Mentor is no longer at his elbow, and he should be prepared to meet such tests as he may be subjected to in the world's examination. The manner of examining in the Oshkosh Normal School was stated.

The chairman having called for the report of the committee on the "County Superintendency,"

Prof. Parker stated in response that the committee had not prepared a report, but would do so hereafter. He suggested that the meeting listen to the reading of a paper on the County Superintendency which Supt. Kirwan, of Manitowoc, had prepared at his request. The reading of this paper then followed.

Supt. Searing said that no topic could be more important than this. It seemed disgraceful for our State to have so long continued a system so faulty as our present system of County Superintendence. In this matter, Minnesota was far in advance of us. In that State, no person is eligible to appointment, unless he has a State certificate, or a diploma from the State University. Our system is very faulty, and needs amendment.

Mr. Chandler asked what the salary of Superintendents was in Minnesota?

Supt. Searing said that the salaries were not larger than at present with us, and he thought this a good omen.

Mr. Chandler asked if men holding State certificates would not be employed as teachers at much larger salaries?

Mr. Parker stated that the State certificate of County Superintendents in Minnesota corresponded very nearly to our third grade certificate.

Other gentlemen corroborated this statement.

Supt. Searing said that the question as to County Superintendence had been settled in the affirmative. The only question open was how to improve it.

Mr. Pradt thought the system needed a radical improvement. He thought the matter of salary would adjust itself.

Motion by Mr. Charlton that committee on County Superintendency, of which

Prof. Parker is chairman, be allowed to report at some subsequent session of this meeting. Carried.

Adjourned to 9 A. M., Tuesday.

MORNING SESSION.

December 29, 1874.

The morning session was opened with prayer by Pres. Chapin of Beloit College.

Pres. Albee, of Oshkosh Normal School, read a paper on "Training Schools in connection with Normal Schools."

Pres. Chapin read a paper on the "True Function of the College."

The chair announced these papers open for discussion.

Supt. Searing raised the question suggested by Pres. Chapin's paper, *why* students did not avail themselves of the privileges of the elective courses of the eastern colleges.

Pres. Bascom.—The American colleges are unique. It is a mistake to attempt to fashion them after English or German models.

Bearing upon Supt. Searing's question, Prest. Bascom remarked further that the faculties of the eastern colleges were in favor of the old established courses, and those students who took the scientific course, found themselves out of sympathy with the spirit of the place. The experiment of elective courses is now being made at Harvard with much more fairness, and much greater prospect of suc cess than before.

Prest. Chapin, in his paper, had pointed out the advantages of having the college under the control of some one religious denomination.

Pres. Bascom, while granting these advantages, claimed some compensations for these in unsectarian colleges, one of which is, that religious instruction is not limited by the peculiar views of any one sect, and that the grand vital, moral and religious truths may be grasped, uncircumscribed by sectarian bias.

Prof. C. G. G. Paine, of Beloit.—The scientific departments at Cornell are very full, because the men in charge are very eminent in their department, much more so than are the professors of the classical departments in theirs. Cornell is worthy of high praise for the prominence given there to the study of the English language.

Mr. A. F. North.—Do the scientific schools make good men? That is the question. Were the scientific chairs in the eastern colleges spoken of, filled with first class men?

Pres. Bascom.—A man stands best on *both* feet. Not science alone, nor the classics alone, but both together, make man.

Pres. Albee.—At the University of Michigan there are two courses. There, students entering the scientific course had had on an average at least two years less culture than those entering the classical course. Has science, there, or anywhere, had a fair chance? Supposing two students of equal ability received the same amount of careful training, one in science the other in classical studies, isn't it possible that the scientific student would show as high a degree of culture as the classical student? The experiment has never been tried. Where parallel elective courses exist, the students in their different courses are not in sympathy with each other, and that unity of feeling which does so much for students, is lost.

Pres. Bascom.—The back-bone of the scientific studies is mathematics, than which nothing is more juiceless. The scientific student lacks the flesh and the rounded symmetry, which classical studies alone, give.

Pres. Chapin.—Latin, Greek, and Mathematics give the training which brings out the powers of the man in all their completeness.

Mr. W. H. Chandler.—The influences of religion are not absent in the State University. Students are constantly under religious influences. The professors chosen are men of known religious standing.

Prof. S. H. Carpenter.—In the study of Latin or Greek, we take one study, and carry it through for six years. If one of the scientific studies, Chemistry for example, were studied just as thorougly, for as long a time, then a comparison of the courses might be instituted. If the

English language were studied as long and as thoroughly as the Latin or Greek, comparison might be made.

Pres. Bascom.—The University is as high now, as the educational ladders of the State will reach. Will the people of Wisconsin multiply and lengthen these ladders?

Supt. James MacAlister.—All our high schools are organized with the classical college in view. Preparatory schools must be organized with reference to the scientific college if science is to have a fair trial.

Mr. Richardson of Milwaukee.—The time has come for changes. Let the "new departure" colleges have a fair chance.

After a short recess, Mr. C. F. Viebahn, of Manitowoc, read the report of the Committee on "Educational Needs of the State."

Pres. Albee moved that the report be adopted. The motion was seconded, and the question called forth a lively discussion.

Supt. Searing spoke in regard to the recommendation of a compulsory law contained in the report.

Mr. Hughes, of Menasha, explained the provisions of the compulsory law of Michigan.

Pres. Bascom, from his experience as a truant officer, was led to believe, that the methods now in use, if dealing with truants, are much too complicated and cumbersome. Compulsory laws have not had a fair trial. Their principle is sound. Taxation is compulsory. Attendance should be.

Asst. State Supt. Pradt.—The time has not yet come, when a compulsory law, of general application is desirable in this State. The machinery of school supervision must be set in good working order first, and better schools must be provided.

Supt. MacAlister.—Nothing could be more disastrous to the school interests of Milwaukee than a compulsory law. There are many Catholics in the city, all opposed to compulsion. Though theoretically in favor of the principle of the compulsory law. The speaker was sure such a law would not work well in his city.

Prof. Paine described the working of a school in Worcester, Mass., provided specially for incorrigibles and truants.

After some further discussion, the motion to adopt the report was amended, on motion of Pres. Chapin, and, finally, the report was recommitted.

Adjourned to 7 o'clock, P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

Pres. Whitford, of Milton, read a paper on "The Co-education of the Sexes."

Pres. Bascom read a paper on "What not to Learn, and What to Learn."

Miss Thomas, an Elocutionist from Michigan, favored the Association with a recitation of "Will the Curfew Ring Tonight?"

Pres. Arey read his report as a member of the committee on "Free Tuition in High Schools."

Mr. A. F. North followed on the same subject, reaching a conclusion exactly opposite to that reached by Pres. Arey.

On motion, these two reports were *accepted.* The chair ruled that this action was equivalent to the adoption of the reports. Appeal having been taken from this ruling, a lively discussion followed on the question, Shall the chair be sustained? The Association having reversed the ruling of the chair, the two reports were somewhat summarily disposed of, the discussion of the first being postponed indefinitely, and the second being laid on the table.

Adjourned till 9 o'clock A. M. of Wednesday.

MORNING SESSION.

Rev. A. O. Wright opened the session with prayer.

Prof. B. M. Reynolds, of La Crosse, read a paper on "Problems in the Management of Graded Schools."

Superintendent Hendrickson, of the State Industrial School for Boys, at Waukesha, read a paper on "The Relation of our Public Schools and Crime."

Supt. MacAlister raised the question whether it would not be better to have a connection between the city schools and the Industrial School, through the De-

partment of Instruction, rather than through the criminal courts.

Prof. A. R. Cornwall, of Albion Academy, then read a paper on "Intermediate Schools."

Supt. MacAlister rose to make the "amende honorable" for his vote of last evening on the ruling of Pres. Emery. He showed that at the meeting of the Association held in Milwaukee in 1868, Cushing's Manual was adopted as authority. According to the Manual, Pres. Emery was right in his ruling, that the acceptance of a report is equivalent to its adoption.

Supt. Searing read the report of the committee on "Academic Instruction in State System."

On motion, the report was received.

The motion to adopt, which followed, called forth some discussion.

Supt. MacAlister, The *government* should have control of education, Private academies are out of the line.

Mr. W. H. Chandler read a carefully prepared paper, germain to the question.

Pres. Bascom spoke in condemnation of New England academies. They do not help the public schools, and the high schools are displacing them.

Prof. Cornwall defended the academies.

Prof. Paine favored high schools, as did also Prof. O. Salisbury and A. F. North.

Rev. J. B. Pradt reminded the Association that the proposed town high schools would be high schools in name only—not the much-desired "missing link."

Supt. Searing read from the report of the State Supt. of Maine, an extract pertinent to the question.

Prof. Porter, of Palmyra, bore testimony to the efficiency of the Free Town High Schools of Maine.

Supt. Lunn, of Sauk county—How do these schools work in towns having no villages?

Supt. Searing—The law is very flexible. Some schools have but one term a year, others more, as the means of the people warrant, or their necessities require.

Prof. B. M. Reynolds—Do these Town High Schools reach the rural districts?

Supt. Searing—Just what they are for.

By request, the Secretary read a paper prepared by Mr. A. H. Weld, of River Falls, bearing on the question.

On motion of Prof. Salisbury, as an amendment to the motion, it was voted that all papers in the possession of the Association, bearing on the question, be referred to a committee consisting of Supt. Searing, Pres. Bascom and Pres. Albee; this committee to report at the evening session, at the time appointed for the report of the committee on "Teachers' Institutes."

On motion, it was voted that the report of the committee on "County Superintendency" be made the second order at the meeting this evening.

Adjourned to 7 o'clock P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The final session of this meeting was opened by a lecture on "The Geological History of Wisconsin," by Prof. T. C. Chamberlain, of Beloit.

Prof. Samuel Shaw, of Madison, read a paper on "How far may the State Provide education for her Children at Public Cost?"

Supt. Searing then read the report of the committee on "Academic Instruction in State System," as follows:

Your committee agree in recommending—

1. The adoption by the State of Wisconsin of a system of Free Town High Schools, similar to that now in operation in Maine;

2. The placing of the State Normal Schools in organic connection with the University, by means of a Normal College therein;

3. Such modification of courses of study in the Normal Schools and the University as may be necessary to admit of the proposed connection.

EDWARD SEARING,
JOHN BASCOM,
G. S. ALBEE,
Committee.

On motion, the report was adopted.

W. D. Parker, of Janesville, then read the report of the committee on County Superintendency, as follows:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this convention that the State Superintendent should put himself in vital relations to County Superintendents, with a view—

1. To ensure examinations regularly held, and of a more nearly uniform character; and

2. To stimulate and direct the general educational agitation in all the counties of the state.

MEMORANDA.

All original papers—questions and answers—to be sent to the State Department and there preserved during the continuance in force of certificates granted thereon.

The State Superintendent to take cognizance of the holding of Teachers' Institutes, and to see that County Superintendents personally participate in the same, according to law.

To effect unity of purpose among County Superintendents, teachers and people.

W. D. PARKER,
W. H. CHANDLER,
A. O. WRIGHT.

On motion, the report was adopted.

On motion, it was voted that Supt. Searing, Pres. Bascom and Pres. Albee be continued as a committee for the purpose of perfecting the details of the changes recommended in their report on "Academic Instruction in State System."

The thanks of the Association were voted to Prof. Chamberlain for his able and instructive lecture.

Supt. Searing offered the following resolution, which was at once adopted:

Resolved, That women should be by law, rendered eligible to all school offices in the State.

Pres. Emery announced the action of the Executive committee, appointing the next annual meeting to be held in Eau Claire, July 6, 7 and 8, 1875.

W. D. Parker offered the following resolutions, which on motion were adopted:

Resolved, 1. That recognizing a powerful ally of schools in the Press, we gratefully acknowledge many courtesies of editors, and we hereby tender our thanks to the *Madison Democrat* and *Wisconsin State Journal*, for special reports of proceedings of this meeting.

Resolved, 2. That we hereby tender our thanks to the hotels of Madison; to the Milwaukee, Lake Shore & Western; the Wisconsin Central, and the Green Bay & Minnesota Railways, for reduced rates of entertainment and of fare, during this meeting.

The Association then adjourned, to meet in Eau Claire July 6, 7 and 8, 1875.

J. Q. EMERY, *Prest.*

A. J. HUTTON, *Sec'y.*

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

A STATE SCHOOL TAX.

[From the Annual Report of the State Superintendent.]

While the adoption of the township system alone would be a long step towards a more desirable equality in taxation for school purposes, there would still remain the same inequality between towns as now between districts. With the growth of cities and villages, and the concentration therein of population and wealth, this inequality becomes perpetually greater—a result which, while more marked in New England and other eastern states, is nevertheless apparent in our own commonwealth.

The remedy for this is readily suggested by the principle that underlies our American system of popular education—"the duty of the State to provide for the education of all the children of the State, by taxing every man in proportion to his property." How does the State now embody in practice this wise and benignant principle? By a uniform tax upon all the property of the State does it secure for its children sufficient and uniform means of instruction? Not at all. The State provides for the support of local schools mainly by a uniform tax upon the property of local towns and school districts. Moreover, local authorities determine the sum to be raised by tax from such property, the State merely fixing the *minimum* amount. It is true the State provides for a uniform and impartial distribution of the income of the School Fund; but this income is so small in proportion to the amount needed

for the support of the schools, that it has but little effect upon the inequality of local taxation.

The remedy for this clearly lies in a general State tax that shall give to the entire school system a more substantial and uniform basis. The character of the schools should be made far less dependent upon local resources. A system showing the inequalities exhibited above is hardly worthy the name of a State system. What would be thought of a line of railway owned and operated by a single company, yet exhibiting all motly characteristics throughout its course, from the palatial depots and steel rails of a safe and perfect part, to the worn out rails, crumbling ties and tottering bridges of perhaps an adjoining section? To be safe, to be worthy of popular confidence, to be profitable, it must be uniformly constructed of good materials, and as excellent in all essential features in the unpeopled wilderness as in the populous and wealthy districts.

From the last Annual Report of my predecessor, I find that the whole income of the School Fund is less than one-twelfth of the entire cost of the public schools of the State for the year 1873, and actually less than one-eighth of the amount paid for teachers' wages alone during the same year. Here is a State system of schools professing to offer to all the children of the State an education that shall qualify them for good citizenship, yet deriving more than eleven-twelfths of its support from local and very unequal—and to a great extent optional—taxation! Moreover, the slender pittance of less than one dollar in twelve, which the State does impartially distribute, comes—almost every penny of it—from a National grant, of which the State is merely the custodian. Not one dollar has the State ever voted from its general revenue for the support of a system of public instruction that is acknowledged to be the very anchor of its own safety. Is this consistent? Is it wise? I most earnestly commend the consideration of these questions to the people, and to their chosen representatives in the State Legislature.

Force will be added to the above suggestions by referring to the practice and experience of other States.

New Jersey, with a school population, judging from the average attendance, less than one-half our own, expended for school purposes in the year 1873, over $400,000 more than did Wisconsin. Besides imposing, for the support of her schools, a uniform two-mill tax upon the property of the State, she adds to this an additional annual appropriation of $100,000. In the last Annual Report of her faithful and popular Superintendent, Hon. E. A. Apgar, I find the following very significant and instructive paragraphs:

"It will be observed that the State appropriation amounts to about three-fourths of all the money needed to maintain the schools. This money is derived from the tax of two mills on a dollar, levied by the State. This tax is uniform in all the counties, and is apportioned for the use of the schools on the basis of the school census. The cause of public school education is regarded as a State and not a local interest, and a State appropriation derived from a uniform State tax is undoubtedly the most equitable and just means for supporting the same. This method of raising school money does not meet with a tithe of the opposition that the old plan of resorting to township taxation always encountered.

"Forty townships out of the 217 in the State, raised additional funds by township tax, and in 507 districts out of a total number of 1,267, district school taxes were assessed. In 176 districts, taxes were assessed to pay teachers' salaries, and in 477, they were imposed to build and repair school houses."

Maine imposes upon all the property of the State, an annual tax of one mill per dollar valuation, and thus increases the school revenue by the sum of about $225,000, or nearly one-fifth the entire current expenses of the school system. Hon. Warren Johnson, in his annual report for 1872, says:

"This form of taxation, so general among the States, is not merely one of convenience, but it is established on the fundamental principles of duty and equity. Reason and experience demonstrate the necessity of an intelligent people for the life and welfare of the State. With this necessity granted, the State through its organic legislative body expresses its will in relation thereto, and issues the mandate to every town, "Educate your youth." Along with this command of the State, should go the accompanying enactment by which means shall be afforded to the several town com-

mittees, in order that they may effectually accomplish the purpose intended. Hence the duty of the State to provide these means, not by taxing the wealth or poverty of others, but by drawing from its own treasury and disbursing in such a manner as may, in its wisdom, be deemed best. The State educates; the State should pay for it. This the State does in part by the present mill-tax. Again, the revenue, or means, thus required by the State, should be paid by those who are *able* to pay. The poor man, with a family of six children to be educated, ought not to be obliged to pay six times as much as the rich man with one child, or even as much as the latter with six children. It is common intelligence we are endeavoring to secure, and the cost of the attempt and of all the instrumentalities connected therewith, in justice and equity, should be paid for by the commonwealth, by all the property in the State. This is a principle long recognized in the school district and in the town, since never the *individual* but *property*, is assessed for educational and other purposes. Duty and equity, therefore, sanction the legislation whereby this source of public school revenue was spoken into active existence.

Illinois, by a two-mill school tax, uniformly assessed upon the property of the State, adds nearly a million dollars to her educational revenues. Moreover, in his last Biennial Report, Hon. Newton Bateman, Superintendent of Public Instruction, says:

"I also recommend that the amount of common school revenue raised directly by the State, be largely increased, so that the local district school taxes may be proportionally diminished, and the burdens and benefits of the school system, financially considered, more nearly equalized. I do not think it would be advisable to entirely relieve the inhabitants of the several school districts from the necessity of a supplementary local tax, but there is little probability of that, as it would require the State appropriation to be increased more than five times the present amount. I am of the opinion, however, that if the sum now appropriated by the State were doubled, it would prove a wise and beneficial measure."

Michigan, by a two-mill State school tax, adds over $460,000 to the income of her school fund, which, however, itself yields more per scholar than does the income of the school fund of Wisconsin. Indeed, while the school population in each State is about the same,—statistics even making the average attendance in our own 10,000 more,—the total expenditure of Michigan for her schools is over $1,300,000 more than that of Wisconsin.

Indiana, with a school fund larger by two millions of dollars than that of any other State in the Union, adds to the income of that fund more than a million dollars annually, by a uniform State tax of nearly two mills on a dollar valuation.

Other States increase their school revenues in a similar way, as follows:

California, by a one mill tax.

Kansas, by a one mill tax.

Kentucky by a two mill tax.

Nebraska, by a two mill tax.

New York, by a one and one-fourth mill tax.

Ohio, by a one and three-tenths mill tax.

Oregon, by a two mill tax.

Pennsylvania by a large annual appropriation.

Rhode Island, by an annual appropriation.

Indeed, an examination shows that twenty-five of the thirty-seven States have a State school tax, while only twelve have none.

Massachusetts alone, among the States that are educational leaders, has not as yet adopted this plan, so largely in operation elsewhere; but Hon. Joseph White, the venerable Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, has several times called attention to the wisdom of thus equalizing to some degree the burdens and privileges of the school system in that State. He says in a recent Annual Report, after referring to the present marked disparity of burdens and benefits, and the need of a remedy therefor:

"I invite your attention to a method for this purpose, which is in my judgment alike practical and just in its application.

"I propose that a school tax of one-half of one mill on the dollar on the whole valuation of the Commonwealth, be annually assessed, collected and paid into the treasury, in the same manner as other State taxes, and when so paid that it be designated by the treasurer as the half-mill school fund for the support of Public Schools; and further, that said fund be apportioned and distributed among the several cities and towns in the Commonwealth according to the number of per-

sons therein between the ages of five and fifteen, and in the same manner and on the same conditions as one-half of the income of the school fund is apportioned and distributed.

"With respect to the plan here proposed, I suggest—

First. That it is not a scheme for increasing the cost of supporting our schools. Not a dollar need to be added to the *average* cost. It is simply nothing more nor less than raising the needed amount in a more equitable way than at present.

Second. That each town and each person will contribute in as equal, and therefore just, ratio to the taxable property of each.

Third. That the method of distribution is the only one which is just and equitable and at the same time practicable. Since every town contributes to the general weal, precisely according to the number of youth which it educates, and thus fits for good citizens, so it is plain that the amount contributed by the State should be determined by the number so educated, with the single modification, if any, perhaps, in favor of those places which incur the heaviest rate of taxation.

Fourth. That it will give a coherence and unity to our school system which it now lacks, and thus become a source of vigor and strength. It will create a stronger sympathy between the different municipalities, as mutual contributors to and receivers from a common fund, as well as the subjects of a common law. Indeed, the laws passed from time to time in the interest of harmonious and progressive action will be no longer regarded, especially by the smaller and less favored towns, in the light of arbitrary mandates, but rather as beneficial rules of action suited to the exigencies of all and for the general good. The *enforcement* of the laws will give place to a *cheerful obedience* to them.

"While in the large cities and towns the burden imposed by the proposed measure will be hardly appreciable, the relief to the smaller ones will be most grateful and timely; confidence and hope will take the place of discouragement and discontent: greater efforts will follow; a more thoroughly instructed and altogether higher grade of teachers will be employed, and for longer terms of time; and a better class of school houses, with fitting apparatus and furniture, will take the place of the rude, unsightly and uncomfortable structures, which, in too large numbers, still linger among us."

Nowhere have I found more clearly set forth the character and causes of the evils under consideration, than in the last Annual Report of Hon. Thomas W. Bicknell, Commissioner of Public Schools of Rhode Island. The clear statements, apt illustrations and cogent reasoning of this author, will be considered sufficient excuse for the length of the quotation. I would invite particular attention to the felicitous and truthful comparison of the flow of population, wealth and enterprise to cities, and the flow of streams and rivers to the ocean. It is at once admirable illustration and unanswerable argument:

"Attention is called to the last column in this table, which shows the town tax on each $100 for the support of public schools. The inequality of this tax is a remarkable feature of the case. While the towns of Westerly and South Kingstown raise a tax of *six cents* on each $100 of their valuation, the town of Foster raises a tax of *twenty-three cents*, the town of Johnston a tax of *twenty-four cents*, the town of East Providence a tax of *twenty-five cents*, and the town of New Shoreham a tax of *twenty-six cents* on each $100 of the State valuation of 1870. The other towns range between these two wide extremes of school taxation. This fact, taken in connection with the other, that the school year varies in length in the several towns of the State, from twenty-four weeks, the minimum school year, to forty weeks, the maximum school year, and we find that the burdens and advantages of our schools are unequally distributed throughout the State. Now, it is very evident that when a part of the State suffers a lack of educational privileges, or is obliged to assume an undue share of taxation, that the whole State must, in the end, and on the whole, be the loser thereby. And it is the purpose of the wise legislator, and the argument of true political economy, to distribute the benefits and to divide the obligations of society as equally as possible, so that every member may receive his due proportion of each.

"Not only is the inequality of our school taxation evident by reference to the preceding table, but it is also made apparent in another form, in the following, which shows the amount of property in each town, represented by each child under fifteen years. * * * * * * *

"Each child in New Shoreham represents $787 of taxable property, in Middletown, $5,969, in Exeter, $1,444, and in Providence, $4,830. The average for each child in the whole State is $3,287. By this table, it appears that a single child in Newport represents more than seven times as much property as a single child in New Shoreham, in the same county; that a child in Providence represents three times as much property as a child in Foster, in the same county, and that in fourteen of the towns enumerated above, the valuation per child is below the average valuation by the State. It will also be noticed that the valuation for each child is the lowest in those towns where the people are mainly devoted to agriculture. Now it will be clearly seen that if the wealth of the State was equally divided, the ratio of taxation for the support of schools would be quite equitably adjusted among all the people. As it now stands, the towns of smallest valuation must raise a large tax, while the wealthier towns,

which have abundant means for the purpose, have the smaller tax for school purposes. Not only are these inequalities of taxation for the support of schools very great at the present time, but they are increasing year by year, as the business and wealth tends to centres, and withdraws from the remote and rural sections of the State. Owing to the great changes of twenty and thirty years, by reason of our system of railroads, the growth of manufacturing interests, and the growth of cities and villages on the lines of commercial intercourse and at great centres of trade, wealth has led and followed these lines of improvement and progress, and the former scenes of business and comparative opulence have become sparsely populated and well nigh forsaken by enterprise. The last twenty years show a remarkable change in the valuation of the towns of Rhode Island, and the next twenty, with the present tendencies, will exhibit a more remarkable centralization of business forces, and the accumulations of capital in centres of traffic, manufacture, and internal and foreign commerce. As the annual drain is made from the country to the city, of its population, its enterprise and its wealth, it reminds one of the constant flow of the stream to the rivers, and of the rivers to the sea, carrying from hill and mountain slopes the rich soils, which form the alluvial meadows and prairies, which grow the world's harvests. Were there no return of moisture in the evaporation of the ocean, which the winds carry in fogs, rains and snows, to add new supplies to the unfailing springs among the hills, these fountains of fertility, of beauty, of growth and of wealth to the valleys would cease. So there may be a return of the blessings of wealth from wealth centres, by sending forth to the sections less favored by wealth, the means which shall keep a healthy supply of intelligent population to make good the wear, the weakness and the decay of the forces which become enervated by wealth, or demoralized by the corruptions incident to, and necessarily attendant upon large populations and undue wealth. In order that the schools of the town of Exeter shall be as good as those of the city of Newport, the people must have as good teachers and as long terms of schools, with as good school accommodations, supervision, etc. The children of each municipality are entitled to equal advantages in educational concerns, and the people of one portion of our State cannot look with unconcern upon the present condition or future prospects of any other section. The interests of the children are common interests, and must receive a share in the public weal or woe of the State. But Exeter must tax its citizens *pro rata* seven-fold as much as Newport, in order to secure from town and State the money necessary to give its children as good school privileges as the youth of the city of Newport enjoy; because its pecuniary ability is only one-seventh as great *per capita*. Now if the burdens were borne by Exeter for private interest alone, and not chiefly for the common good of the State, that every child therein might be fitted for his duties as a man and a citizen, the matter of child education might be left wholly with the local decision of the question. But the free school system, as adopted by the New England States, and now inaugurated in every State of our Union, recognizes the great principle of distributing the blessings of education broadcast and free throughout the State, and of an equalizing of the burdens to be borne by the wealth of the whole State. Each child is a fractional part of the town population, each town is a fraction of the State, so each dollar in the town valuation is but a fraction of the town and State wealth. All are but parts of one organic whole, the State. This unity of interest, and power and growth, establishes the free school, so that the poor as well as the rich may, together, enjoy the equal advantages of preparation for services in life. Is this principle fully recognized in the present methods of raising our school revenue?

The mill tax, or a State tax of one mill upon each dollar of State valuation, would secure a more equitable adjustment of shis matter. With a valuation of over two hundred and fourteen millions of dollars, a tax of one mill upon the dollar would yield an annual revenue of over two hundred and fourteen thousand dollars for public schools. This amount, divided by the present system, would give relief, immediate and valuable, to all the poorer towns of the State, while it would be a small return from the richer for the benefits which have been, and will be conferred by the constant contribution of population, labor and capital to the growing centres of business. No more money is required by this plan. The change only affects the method of raising our school revenue so as to make the whole property of the community the basis, to a certain extent, of the taxation, which protects its integrity, and which will constantly enhance its value. By this tax, not only is justice and equality secured, but an annual ratio of increase will be made to the school fund corresponding to our increase in wealth, which would satisfy, to a certain extent, the increased demand for larger educational facilities on the part of our towns, and would distribute the burdens among those who will most largely enjoy the pecuniary gains."

The following statement from Hon. W. H. Chandler, Superintendent of Dane County, adds confirmation to the above:

"No small proportion of the inefficiency of our public schools is attributable to the fact that so large a part of the amount necessary for their support, is left to be provided for by local taxation, and so small a part comes from a general tax or the income of the school fund. Facts coming under my own observation prove that not unfrequently wealthy residents, and persons having no children of school age, unite in defeating the wish of others having personal and public interest in maintaining efficient and adequate school advantages. The meagre apportionment of public money being thus often forfeited, in order to

save a much larger amount needful to be raised by local taxation to support schools. Illiteracy is thus increased, not for want of interest in the schools, but by lack of schools to attend. In the interest of sound public policy, give us a *liberal uniform State tax* for support of public schools."

I have thus devoted considerable space to this subject, but no more than its great importance demands. The interests of our school system, in my judgment, demand its speedy consideration by the Legislature, and such action thereby as will both give greater vigor to the system as a whole, by strengthening its weaker parts, and remove from the State the disgrace of being almost the only one in the Union that has not aided or even thought of aiding, from its own full and impartial hand, the system of popular culture upon which it professes to base its very existence.

A tax of two mills per dollar valuation upon all the property of the State, added to the income of the School Fund, would give less than one-half the amount annually required for the support of our public schools, but would go far in equalizing burdens, diminishing much oppressive local taxation, improving inefficient instruction in country districts, and adding unity and vigor to the whole educational system. Such a measure the State will certainly adopt at no distant day. Why should not its benefits be immediately secured?

How Shall the Town System be Introduced?

It is obvious that it will not introduce itself. It is one of the curiosities of human nature that a great blessing or benefit, though fairly placed within reach of men, will often remain unnoticed, and unappropriated, or at all events unused, until somebody sets the example and demonstrates its utility, and then the thing goes. The principle of imitation is awakened, and an ardent desire is suddenly felt for what was before regarded with indifference, and perhaps with aversion. It will be so with the introduction of the town system. So soon as a few prominent towns have the enterprize and good sense to adopt it, wisely administer it, and thus show its great superiority, others will rapidly follow suit.

But how shall these towns be induced to make the experiment, and to make it intelligently and successfully? It is quite certain that they will not move without argument and persuasion. Missionary work must be done: and we can think of obvious ways of doing it. But in the first place the missionary must himself be filled with missionary zeal, and this will happen we think to any person who is already deeply interested in public education and desirous for its improvement, if he will read up on the town system and become thoroughly conversant even with its theoretical advantages.

A belief in the immense superiority of this system is not confined to any locality. Not only have former superintendents of this State urged its adoption most warmly (see Supt. Pickard's Report, 1863, McMynn's, 1868, Craig's, 1868 and 1869), but the superintendents of other States, in all directions, and especially where they have been so unfortunate as to have the single district system. Hon. A. Rankin, Secretary of the Vermont Board of Education, in his Report for 1869, enumerates the evils of the old system (as given below), and declares, that they "will be recognized by every one who has had any experience in connection with the public schools" (under the old system); "that these evils may in a very great measure be alleviated by a change in our system of public schools," and "that the adoption of what is called the *town system*, in contradistinction from the *district system* would tend largely to diminish them." His statement of the "twice seven and one plagues of our common school system" is as follows:

1. Total lack of or insufficient supervision.
2. Constant change of supervision.
3. Poorly qualified teachers.
4. Constant change of teachers.
5. Lack of interest in schools, on the part of patrons.
6. Employment of relatives and favorites without regard to qualifications.
7. Too small schools in many districts.
8. Too short schools in many districts.

9. Employment of immature and incompetent teachers in small districts.
10. Poor school-houses.
11. Irregular attendance.
12. General lack of facilities to aid the teacher.
13. No schools at all in many districts.
14. Lack of proper classification.
15. Pupils study what they choose and not what they ought.

Hon. Newton Bateman, for so many years the efficient State Superintendent of Illinois, and who has earned the right to speak with authority, in the Sixth Biennial Report says:

"The pernicious consequences incident to the defect of our local system may all be epitomized by the statement that it *necessitates* the elevation to the important offices of trustees and directors, of many indifferent and incompetent men; of men who either *care* little for common schools, or who have not the knowledge or ability to *do* much for them. It clogs, encumbers, and deadens the system; dragging in its train the evils of misjudgment, mismanagement, inefficiency, and demoralization. And there is no remedy, without a radical change of plan."

Upon the supposition that the town system were adopted, he thus beautifully and graphically points out the quiet and beneficent character of the transition:

"Not a common school in the State would be closed or interfered with, not a teacher discharged, not an existing contract annulled. The great educational work of the State would move right on as if nothing had happened: no visible sign would appear to show that an immense administrative reform had taken place, and a new and glorious era dawned upon our system of public instruction. The vast accumulations of school property would be preserved intact; but few school houses would have to be moved, and none at all immediately, for, as a general rule, school sites and buildings that are in the right places now, would be equally so then. Thus, quietly, without shock or confusion, almost without public knowledge or notice, the system would lay down the heavy, galling harness of her ten-thousand-headed policy, and assume the light elastic armor of a fresh, compact and simple, but far more expansive and powerful organization. As in the case of our matchless civil government, the people would be reminded of its existence chiefly by the richness of the blessings which it would dispense."

In Pennsylvania the system was adopted from the outset, and there, as we know from ample personal observation, (having held the office of County Superintendent in that State,) it works admirably. A former State Superintendent in that noble commonwealth, says:

"The chief advantages of our township system are the facilities afforded for grading the schools wherever it is practicable, the simplicity of reporting to the State department, which it affords, the ease with which uniformity of text books can be secured, the means which it affords for securing a superintendent of each district, and the systematic visiting and reporting the condition of the the schools to the board, and the ease with which each board may be communicated with and reached, through the official department of the State Journal, which is made a State organ, and sent to the secretary of each board at the public expense. In a population of three millions we have only about 1,700 boards of directors. We should have not more than 1,500; but we were vexed with a few independent districts which should never have been allowed, by which the number is increased."

In Wisconsin, with one-third the population, we have over 5,000 school boards, which, under the town system, would be reduced to something more than 800. The advantage and economy of this change would be something like that which would accrue to a farmer, who, instead of carrying his produce to market by means of a dozen wheelbarrows, each load requiring a day's work by a strong man, should change his method and take it on a wagon drawn by a pair of horses driven by one man, in one-half of a day.

But we must close for the present, and reserve for a future article, some remarks on the *modus operandi*, by which the supposed missionary of the new system may reach and convert the educational public.

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S ANNUAL REPORT.

The following are the recommendations of the State Superintendent, as presented in his Annual Report, and more or less fully discussed:

A System of Free Town High Schools.

Uniformity and the free use of text-books.

Township system of school government.

A more uniform, systematic and effective examination of teachers by county superintendents, with questions and rules for conducting the examinations and for marking the papers furnished by the Department.

A uniform State tax for the partial support of the schools, and diminished local taxation.

The eligibility of women to local school offices.

A new building to furnish enlarged and greatly needed accommodations for the State University.

The establishment of a Normal College in connection with the State University.

A change from the present elective to an appointive system of County Superintendence.

The establishment of twenty days as a legal school month.

The subject of compulsory education claims considerable attention, and a general compulsory law, such as ten or a dozen States have already passed, and such as is demanded by many citizens of our own, meets the decided disapproval of the Superintendent.

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE.

The flood-tide of "Compulsory" agitation and enactment on the subject of popular education gives signs of a coming subsidence. It appears to have reached its culmination in the compulsory law of New York, which went into operation the 1st of January. From Michigan, where four years ago it swept everything before it, it has almost entirely receded. That State has pretty effectually found out that a glittering theory cannot always be transformed into a plain and useful fact, and that "hindsight" does not always confirm the uncertain visions of "foresight."

In the Empire State, as in the Peninsular, there were great anticipations of this new enactment—anticipations which have already largely come to naught. The law, on going into operation, was found to be immensely "defective." The only cry now heard is that for "repeal," or "modification," or "improvement."

The simple fact is, that such a compulsory law as now has a shadowy existence upon the statute books of some dozen States, more or less, has no elements of popularity and practicability. It is simply one of those pieces of "emotional" legislation which in these latter days has partly simply deceived, and partly cursed many sections and classes of the country.

WHILE on a recent visit to Pewaukee we had the pleasure of spending an hour or two in the excellent public school of that wide-awake little village. Could any village not be wide-awake and hold such an embodiment of intelligent, genial and witty enthusiasm as Prof. North? Thrice happy is the community whose children grow up under the perennial influence of such a man. We found the school all we expected, full of life, interest and thorough devotion to work. The first exercise—a contest between the boys and girls in the rapid solution on slates of an example involving ready and accurate knowledge of several arithmetical principles and processes—was peculiarly novel and interesting. In this candor compels us to say that the girls came out decidedly ahead, a result—entirely discreditable to our sex, as we feel it to be—almost uniformly attained, we were told. The reading classes gave evidence of skillful teaching, and all that we saw fully confirmed what we were assured of before, that Prof. North is a host, whether teaching the boys and girls of his own village, instructing and inspiring an institute, or mingling humor and wisdom in a speech to a State Association.

THE Board of Regents of Normal Schools, at the semi-annual session just closed, voted an appropriation for the enlargement of the Whitewater Normal School. The capacity of the building is to be nearly doubled, and thus ample accommodations afforded for the multitude

of students and for the (now hampered) departments of that flourishing school. This addition will, however, simply put the Whitewater Normal on a par with those at Platteville, Oshkosh and River Falls in the amplitude and convenience of its physical accommodations. The present building—the first one erected in the State by the Regents—was planned and built in "the days of ignorance," when no man could divine the true character and extent of Normal work in the future. We congratulate Whitewater on this long needed improvement.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The Union Teachers' Association for the counties of Walworth and Jefferson, held its second session at Whitewater, Jan. 23, 1875. An attendance of about one hundred; over fifty teachers enrolled. A number of the prominent educators of the State were present, among which we mention President Arey and Professors Rockwood and Salisbury, of the Normal School, Professors Parker, of Janesville, Dewey of Delavan, Porter of Palmyra, Van Dyke of Darien, and the Superintendents of Rock, Jefferson and Walworth counties. A lively interest was manifested in the general work.

The following resolution was passed:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this association that a law should be enacted making school text-books uniform in towns, and that said books should be school property.

The society holds its next session at Palmyra, February 6th. All teachers invited. T. T. L.

PIERCE COUNTY.—We are pleased to receive the following:

Visiting the school in the village of El Paso, I listened to a recitation upon the article of a class in primary grammar.

After many examples had been given illustrating the use of the indefinite article, I asked whether any one could give me a rule by which I should know when to use *a* and when *an*. No one being able to do this, I asked them to find the law without aid from book or teacher, and to day the teacher, Miss Jessie I. Dale, writes me that a little girl, Katie Meehan, without any aid, has made the discovery.

Such an instance so well illustrates the true method of education, and judging from my experience, is so uncommon, that I have thought it worthy of record.

I am interested to know how many teachers can report similar instances in our schools this winter. R. L. REED.

PRESCOTT, Jan. 24th, 1875.

WHITEWATER is moving, as will be seen by the following note:

It gives me pleasure to report our schools in a thriving condition. The number of departments, ten; number of teachers employed, eleven. Our school gave an entertainment last term, proceeds applied to make additions to our library. Have secured Chamber's Cyclopædia. The volumes of Appleton's late edition which are published; also, Lippincott's Gazetteer. As our acquaintance with these books becomes more intimate, we are certain we shall find a greater necessity and desire on our part to continue it.

T. T. LEWIS, *Principal.*

January 26, 1875.

THE following was one of a list of about twenty "rules," posted up a few years since in a country district school house, in a certain county of this State: "There shall be no grimaces, gripes, or contortions of the body for the purpose of exciting laughter." The teacher said, in the presence of the veracious chronicler to whom we are indebted for this, that "he wondered why he could not keep order in that school."

THE MEETINGS.—We give the Proceedings of the "Semi-Annual," as furnished by the Secretary, Mr. Hutton, but have not received the Proceedings of the Convention of Superintendents. Hope to get them for next month. It will be seen that we have a report of an interesting meeting of Superintendents of the northeast part of the State, at Oshkosh.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

YOUNG FOLKS' HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard, publishers. 1875.

It is a lucky thing for the young folks when they can get a man of taste, culture and real scholarship to write books for them upon such subjects as history, and relieve them from the dull routine-work of professed school-book makers. Such a book, for New England children, was Hawthorne's "Grandfather's Chair," and such a book is Freeman's "Early English History." Col. Higginson has undertaken the same thing for the History of the United States, and has made a book which is eminently fresh and readable, and which bears about it no traces of task-work. Whether teachers can make classes learn and recite it, in the usual mechanical way, we cannot tell; it will at any rate make an admirable class reading book, and give American children a far more living and genuine knowledge of the history of their country than they can possibly get from mere text-books. When they have the book in their hands, they will read it because they cannot help reading it, and will remember it because the story is told in such a way as to impress the imagination and fasten itself upon the memory.

We will quote a paragraph from the publishers note, which seems to us to contain exactly the principle upon which histories for the young should be prepared; a principle which we hardly ever remember to have seen carried out in practice: "In this book, only such names and dates are introduced as are necessary to secure a clear and definite thread of connected incident in the mind of the reader; and the space thus saved is devoted to illustrative traits and incidents, and the details of daily living."

ECLECTIC HISTORICAL ATLAS. Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

This work comprises the excellent Maps contained in Thalheimer's Histories, and is adapted for use with any work on ancient, medieval or modern history. It supplies at moderate price, and in convenient form, a widely felt want, and the publishers should have the thanks as well as patronage, of every student of history.

WEBSTER'S UNABRIDGED DICTIONARY. now presents a new feature. To the 3000 illustrations heretofore given, the publishers have recently added four pages of colored illustrations, engraved and printed expressly for the work at large expense, viz: arms of the States and Territories; arms of various nations; flags of various nations; United States naval flags, etc., which makes the work still more useful and attractive.

LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE.—The February number of this delightful periodical contains a greater variety than usual, and several of the articles are of a decidedly popular character. We take pleasure in informing our readers that on remitting the subscription price, $4.00, this profusely illustrated, refined, entertaining and instructive periodical, will be sent, postage prepaid, for one year, and any of the books offered in the premium list of over one hundred and sixty volumes, will be sent, also postage prepaid, to the address of the subscriber. To a club of twenty subscribers this magazine is put at $3.00 a year to each, and Chambers's Encyclopædia, the most thorough and reliable work of general reference, ten volumes, royal 8vo., bound in sheep, price $50.00, is presented, carriage free, to the person getting up the club. Specimen number, with premium list, mailed on receipt of 20 cents. Address J. B. Lippincott & Co., publishers, 715 and 717 Market St., Philadelphia.

HARPER'S WEEKLY continues to lead all the pictorial papers, while Nast's prolific pencil still shows up political mistakes and corruptions, and exerts a most wholesome influence in behalf of the right and rebuke of the wrong. The weekly discussion of current topics is always opportune and generally approves itself to common sense. The seriels are

always such as gain a multitude of readers, the story of the "Law and the Lady," by Wilkie Collins, being just now the one of chief interest, while the general bill of fare, in the way of matter and of illustrations, is varied and instructive. It is sent, postage prepaid, for $4.00 a year. Harper's Magazine and Harper's Bazar are also each sent on the same terms.

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CO-EDUCATION OF THE SEXES.

BY REV. W. C. WHITFORD, PRESIDENT OF MILTON COLLEGE.

The public schools, both the rural district and the graded of the villages and cities in our country, give instruction to both sexes in the same classes. In these there were in attendance last year over eight millions of pupils, of whom nearly one-half were females. Of the two hundred and twenty-nine thousand teachers employed, at the same time, in these schools, five-ninths were women. No educational system of any State or Territory requires the girls at a given age to be separated from the boys, and educated thereafter in schools by themselves. In every public school-house, with some exceptions, the female scholars can pursue with the male, through the full school age, the same studies, and share with them equal honors. Last year, five hundred and thirty-three cities and large villages in the United States reported that they sustained graded schools, in many of which the more advanced branches of the average academic courses were taught. Twelve-thirteenths of these enrolled pupils were over sixteen years of age; and eleven-twelfths, pupils up to twenty or twenty-one years. These older pupils belonged to both sexes; and what is specially remarkable, the females outnumbered the males among the graduates in very many of these schools.

The charitable schools of our country, those for the blind, the deaf and dumb, the feeble-minded, and orphans, receive the children and youth of both sexes as their inmates, and supply equal advantages for them all. These are maintained at the expense of the public, or by the benefactions of religious people. They number, in all, two hundred and fifty-eight, and express the purest and noblest thought of the State and the Church in regard to their obligations to support and educate the unfortunate boys and girls of the land.

We will next examine the attendance of the females with the males in the higher institutions of the country. According to the best statistics on the subject, nine hundred and forty-four academies were in operation last year. They are supported mainly by private corporations; and hence they represent the educational sentiments of the communities, in which they are situated. Of these academies, one hundred and sixty-two admitted boys only; one hundred and eighty-six, girls only; and five hundred and ninety-six—about eight-thirteenths of the whole number—both boys and girls. Here, then, the practice of educating the sexes together in the intermediate studies of our schools, has gained a prominent foothold.

We have one hundred and nineteen normal schools, and a majority of them are sustained by state, county, or city aid.

The balance are either private institutions working by themselves, or departments connected with our colleges and universities. Five of these are exclusively for females; a few, for males; and a very large proportion are for both. At least seventy-three report lady and gentleman graduates since their organization. A larger number which train young men and young women for teaching, are known to exist. As might be judged, more females than males have completed the full courses of study in these schools —the ratio being nearly two to one.

In our highest institutions of learning, the idea of the co-education of the sexes has not been as prominently adopted. The doors of three hundred and twenty-three colleges and universities are opened to the youth of our country. If the facts on this subject recently published by the United States Commissioner of Education are reliable, one hundred and twenty-nine of these institutions—about three-eighths of all—receive both sexes. Of these, five are located in the New England States; ten, in the Middle; twenty-two, in the Southern; and ninety-two in the Western States and Territories. As is well known, a very large share of our colleges and universities are supported by the religious denominations of the country. Those which admit both sexes are distributed, as far as we can ascertain, among the denominations as follows:—The Evangelicals, one; the Disciples, three; the Universalists, three; the Lutherans, four; the Friends, five; the United Brethren, five; the Christians, seven; the Congregationalists, eleven; the Baptists, fifteen; the Presbyterians, fifteen; and the Methodists, thirty-two. The non-sectarian are twenty-four. At Union, Yale, and Harvard, young women listen to lectures, but are not enrolled in the classes. In the last named institution, they attended this year the examinations which were prepared expressly for them.

Among the schools for special instruction, the commercial and business colleges excel all the others in furnishing equal facilities for both sexes. The whole number of institutions of this kind is one hundred and twenty; and eighty-three of them instruct ladies as well as gentlemen.

Of the schools of science only fifteen of the forty-four make no distinction between the sexes in admission to their classes. While five medical colleges are managed for the separate preparation of women for the practice of medicine, only six of the sixty-five others in operation, as far as I can learn, offer without grudging and without protest, their lectures and experiments to both male and female attendants. Yet a few ladies have braved the ill-concealed scorn and disgust of the best institutions, and qualified themselves carefully to earn a livelihood in the use of the merciful art. We have no reliable information in respect to the attendance of women at the law schools. A few have graduated recently in some of them. In the Law Department of Michigan University, five females were instructed this year. A single woman—a wife in connection with her husband—finished last year the prescribed course of study in one of our leading theological seminaries; but she was not allowed to receive, as her husband did, the diploma of the institution.

The causes which have led to the development of the facts we have presented, are easily understood. They are found in our free democratic ideas and customs, and in our liberal religious culture. The tendency of our educational enterprizes at present is to furnish the women of the country for their life work the same broad, thorough, and intelligent preparation, which has been so long offered to the men. This is a recognition of the truth that both sexes have equal rights in the education and the use of their mental powers; and that, therefore, the State or the community is under obligation to supply our young women, as it supplies our young men, with the best facilities for their culture and usefulness. Every valuable interest gains by heeding this obligation. Woman becomes a better worker, and is more respected. Man has a more intelligent and helpful companion. A greater number of laborers are employed in the higher vocations; and,

therefore, in these each laborer has the better opportunity to perfect himself in his special calling. What has been considered as the toil of an underling and a drudge is dignified and improved by the independent thought and trained skill of educated servants and wives. Employments to which men are not well adapted on account of their instincts and discipline, can safely be entrusted to highly cultivated women. Equality in the education of the sexes must, in short, promote social refinement, a purer political spirit, a more vigorous moral feeling, and a more comprehensive religious effort. Granted that woman has the right to an advanced culture, two considerations have determined that she should be educated in our schools with the sterner sex; one is the saving of labor and expense in providing the facilities for her training, and the other is the mutual influence which the sexes in childhood and youth have over each other for good. The same law which would train up boys and girls together in a family, and in a well-ordered society, applies to the management and discipline of them in our schools.

The movement which has given woman already such vantage ground in this country in securing an education, has originated with the people. Those schools which are more immediately under their control, and represent most definitely their views and purposes, supply the same instruction, in the main, to both males and females. These are the country district and the city graded schools, the normal schools, the charitable schools, and the State colleges, most of which are largely supported by the public revenues. The next grade of institutions embraces the academies and the denominational colleges, which are the exponents of the opinions of localities or religious people on this subject. Those places in which the democratic ideas of this generation have been most thoroughly implanted, and those churches which have been most fully imbued with the life and the thought of this country, have furnished, in accordance with their means, the largest number of secondary and collegiate schools for the education of the females in the same classes with the males.

A very large proportion of the colleges and universities which admit both sexes, are located in the Western States and Territories. How do you account for this, and what does it indicate? Forty years ago there began in this country an educational revival, which has not since abated its strength and enthusiasm. Out of this have arisen our free school systems, our graded schools, our improved methods of school supervision, our normal schools, hundreds of our academies, the increased attention of the religious denominations to educational work, the founding and endowment of scores of colleges, and the State aid to encourage higher culture. With this awakening came new views and new impulses in regard to the education of woman. Of the two hundred and twenty-eight institutions organized for the higher and exclusive training of females, only thirteen were in existence forty years ago. Of the colleges and universities which are now attended by both sexes, only fourteen were then in operation; and none of them, I think, then permitted women to enter their classes. At that time, Troy Female Seminary was struggling for a recognition; Mount Holyoke Seminary was only a conception in the busy brain of Mary Lyon; and Oberlin was just nourishing the germ of its marvelous power, as it gathered its students into its temporary slab shanties. The tide of emigration to the West was then assuming its gigantic form; and the people from the New England and the Middle States brought with them the advanced ideas and the new ways which were so rapidly springing up in this land. They started a large number of colleges, both State and denominational; and opened, as soon as the sentiment was ripened, so many of them to the patronage of the young women of the country. Our Western institutions are then distinguished for embodying the new life and the new culture of the past two score years.

The progress of the work in the co-education of the sexes has been from the

public school to the college, rather than from the college to the public school. The spirit of the college is conservative, while the public school feels more directly the reformatory tendencies of the people. After the district school had tested the safety and efficiency of the practice of co-education, then select schools, which soon grew into academies, ventured on the same course. After these, some of the colleges which were compelled to maintain academic departments in connection with their higher classes, accepted the plan; and, lo! women were shortly afterwards found in these studying the regular college curriculum with their brothers. This movement has now gained such strength that a few fully organized universities, such as the Michigan, Cornell, and Harvard—the latter on the sly, offer their unsurpassed advantages to ladies.

As we have seen, co-education means, as the final result, equal education in the highest branches of learning. So the immediate pressure is now for the ready admission of women into all the classes of our strongest institutions. The contest is just now waged with the old-time notions and the exclusive practice of a majority of our colleges and universities. That they are slowly yielding is evident. The experience of schools with more daring and with younger blood are being accepted in place of their speculative theories.

A direct result of the co-education movement, and one of supreme benefit to woman, is the employment of such a large number of female teachers in the schools of different kinds in this country. In Germany, where the system of separate education prevails, but few women teach, and these only in the schools of the lowest classes of the people. Under this arrangement, instruction by females can never become popular. Already the success of woman in the teacher's occupation is preparing the way for the introduction of her services into other honorable and more lucrative pursuits, from which she has been excluded since the foundation of the world. She is now knocking somewhat falteringly, yet hopefully, at the entrance to our best technical and professional schools; they will not disappoint her. To the honor of Michigan University be it said that every department, even in Law and Medicine, is now open to her; and several ladies graduated in each this year.

In attaining this advanced standing in the cause of co-education, some serious and some frivolous objections have been met. The first to be noticed relates to woman's mental capacity. It has been asserted that she is so intellectually inferior that she cannot acquire an equal education with man; nor is it to be supposed that she can successfully pursue the studies of our higher schools. This idea debars her to-day in Germany from entering the same classes with the males, from the common school to the university, except in those of the lowest order in the former grade. For some time England has testified to the inability of young women to compete with young men in the class-room, by not accepting the bequest of three thousand pounds sterling, offered by John Stuart Mill to the college or university which should first admit females to the privileges of the institution. Is it not the same opinion which shuts women out of ten of the fifteen colleges of New England?

This is an old view of the subject. To the ancient Greek it was some personal iniquity, not a native endowment, which enabled a female to master subjects fitted only to masculine comprehension. In the Sixth Century a venerable religious council debated the grave question, "Whether or not woman ought to be called a human being." To the credit of the learned doctors, let it be known that they decided in favor of the affirmative. In our early English tongue, the word wife is synonomous with the word weaver; both are derived from the same Anglo-Saxon root. Well would it be even in many parts of Europe to-day, were she permitted to exchange the partnership with the mule or the ox in drawing the clumsy plough or the harrows for the more elegant, but burdensome duties of hand-

ling the distaff and the loom. In New England, at the beginning of this century, girls were not allowed to study "the four fundamental rules of arithmetic," because of their incapacity to understand these rules. How could they ever hope to comprehend Geography and Grammar? But how has this delusion been dissipated by the experiments of our schools in the last thirty years. Our thronged and princely endowed female colleges, at least, witness against it. Oberlin utters, after forty years of trial, its emphatic denial of woman's inability to reach the highest grade of studies. There lies before me the statement of Alfred University, New York, in regard to the relative scholarship of both males and females which have been in attendance upon its academic and collegiate classes for a third of a century. The number of different students, in that time, has been over six thousand and six hundred; and they were mostly from the poorer families of a comparatively new region of the country. Three thousand and six hundred were gentlemen, whose average age was a fraction over twenty years; and three thousand were ladies, whose average age was a little over eighteen. The average attendance of both was nearly two years. A careful record shows that the average scholarship of the ladies has been two per cent. better than that of the gentlemen. Let us admit that this may be an exceptional case. Yet I hear that some of our best graded schools which have been in operation for twenty years, can bring forward similar testimony. Prest. Gregory, of the Illinois Industrial University, states as the result of his observation: "Women have equal mental capacity, and study with as much success as young men." Prest. Angel, of the Michigan University, says in his annual report for this year: "The ground once maintained by some, that women have not the intellectual gifts required to master the severe studies of a collegiate course, seems to be generally abandoned. It would, indeed, seem difficult to hold it in the face of the brilliant successes of women in our classes, both in the literary department and in the professional schools." The Chairman of the Board of Visitors at the last annual examination of our State University, says for the Board: "They took particular notice of the recitations of the young ladies in Latin, Greek, Logic, and Mathematics, that they might see whether there were any less vigor of thought, less mental grasp, less mastery of these subjects, of which gentlemen have heretofore claimed a monopoly, and, in justice to the ladies, they must here bear testimony to the fact that no such discovery was made, but rather the discovery of their ability to prosecute the same course of study as the young men, and with equal prospect of benefit, success, and honor." If it were needful, evidence from my own experience as a student and a teacher, most of the time for thirty years, in institutions where both sexes were educated, could be added in confirmation of the foregoing facts.

Another objection to the attendance of women in the same classes with gentlemen is found in the fact that she has different tastes and tendencies, and is required by her nature and her position to fill a special sphere in life. She should, therefore, receive a culture particularly fitted to her condition and needs; and this cannot be attained unless she is educated apart from the opposite sex. Sidney Smith says that the same argument has been urged against the education of common men with the more favorite classes of society. The truth is that the mind will embrace and assimulate the advantages of knowledge and discipline, exactly adapted to its growth and happiness. Though persons may have diverse tempers and purposes, yet they all can be strengthened and satisfied by the same studies and the same truths. The contents of the manger are converted into muscle in one animal, and into milk in an other.

The sexes, if educated together, will demoralize each other. The intellectual tone will not be as high among the gentlemen. Ladies will lose that modesty and refinement of manners, so becoming to their position. The cry has been "woman

will unsex herself." This bugbear has filled the world with separate schools, in which the monkish idea still prevails. I have been a student in a college attended exclusively by young men, I have attended, for three years, a theological seminary, I once taught, for a short time, in a leading female school in the East; and I do not hesitate to say that I have met in these institutions no better enthusiasm and no higher moral tone than what I have witnessed, for many years, in both academies and colleges where the sexes have studied and recited together. Prest. Fairchild, of Oberlin, states that, "The association of both sexes in that institution has furnished wholesome and natural incentives to effort, and harmonized relations with the community incident to the presence of ladies." The President of the Iowa State University says, "The standard of deportment and scholarship among the gentlemen has been raised since the admission of ladies." In none of the schools which admit both males and females, and with which I have been the best acquainted, I have never seen any customs of hazing, or rushing the students, or any bolting from classes. Secret societies organized among the gentlemen, and dealing out their baneful influences among the students; and any insufferable rowdyism, such as is often exhibited on some class day in the colleges for young men, are rarely found in those institutions which train ladies with the gentlemen. I have seen it stated somewhere, what I most firmly believe, that the naturalness of the association between the sexes tends to soften the roughness of the boys, while it moderates the over-susceptibility of the girls to the influence of the opposite sex. But these things are evidences, some still assert, that young men lose in manly spirit, vigor, and independence. If savage sports, dark and underhanded schemes, and contempt for woman are indications of the training which our schools exclusively for males confer upon their inmates, I wish to say that, for the credit of humanity, these schools should be closed. But strength of judgment, broad comprehension, thoroughness of research, and practical tact, the students of these institutions do not excel the gentlemen who graduated in company with ladies.

Among the first arguments which we used to hear against co-education, this was presented: The young people will give their attention to getting acquainted with each other, rather than to pursuing their studies; and will seek to form the more lasting partnerships. In short, such schools will be matrimonial factories. With some, cupid in the school-room has become a standing joke. Place together in any avocation or society young men and young women, whose average ages are between seventeen and twenty-two years, and marriages will be the result to a greater or less extent. But we think that we can safely challenge comparison, in this respect, with any other organization or pursuit which brings statedly or casually the youth of both sexes into each other's company. The statistics of an Eastern institution which has opened its doors for thirty-eight years to adult males and females, show that only *three* per cent. of the students intermarry. At Milton, which has been an academy for twenty-three years and a college for seven, and has been attended by hundreds of both sexes, the per centage is a very little higher; but it will not reach, in all, over three and a half. The acquaintance which students form with each other, and on which they marry within ten years after leaving the school, is made the basis of computation. Some other institutions, I learn, estimate the intermarriages at a lower rate. The reasons for this state of things are found in the earnestness, the sobriety, and the higher views of the sacred affiliations of life, which patient study and the class-room drill awaken in the minds of the students. But the afterwork of life must bring the sexes together. Why not, then, train them in the same classes under the most wholesome, mental, and spiritual influences to understand each other better, to arouse in their hearts at the same time the holiest ambitions, and to prepare them for genuine sympathy and hearty co-op-

eration in their future toils and struggles?

The principal objection now presented is termed the physiological. For how many years have we heard parents and friends discourage boys in their efforts to secure a higher culture, on the plea that hard study is injurious to health. I am curious to know how much of this prejudice against academic or collegiate education is at the bottom of this opposition to the higher training of woman. The claim that she has not sufficient strength and endurance to master the long courses of study, that she should gather up and hold in reserve her life-forces for other and important duties of life, is pressed against co-education on two grounds. One is that she cannot afford to spend her strength in years of mental discipline, as the study with gentlemen means the completion of the curriculum which has been selected for them; and the other is that her physical nature requires that she shall be subjected, in her school days, to a regimen different from that which belongs to the male student. Boys between thirteen and seventeen years of age cannot safely endure the pressure of continuous study; nor can girls between twelve and eighteen endure the same. They both should have, during these periods, long seasons of rest or change of labor. But this claim applies equally well against close and prolonged application in any other pursuit. In our shops and factories, on the farm, or in the kitchen, our youth should, at the time of their most rapid growth, have lighter work to perform. Still the average woman is physical weaker than the average man; and this fact must enter into our estimate of what is her duty in this case.

Some institutions for both sexes have endeavored to solve the problem by encouraging ladies to take up and be satisfied with a separate and shorter course of study. I am glad to know that the more earnest and capable young women demand admission to the full courses. Oberlin has recently abandoned its position on this subject, as both unnecessary and degrading to ladies. A truer method is to arrange with each female student to take longer time in completing her studies. If she becomes a member of the college classes with gentlemen, let her, on an average, occupy five years in finishing the four years' course.

If the increase of intelligence among males has lengthened, as it seems that it has, the period of a generation among them in the past century; why may we not judge that the more thorough mental culture of woman will improve, rather than deteriorate, her physical condition? The health of the Caucasian woman, it is alleged, is less firm than it was fifty years ago. Certainly, their attendance upon schools for superior instruction cannot be mentioned as the cause; for these schools are of a very recent origin, and a very small proportion of women have as yet availed themselves of their advantages. Other causes must be searched for; and it is hoped that a more liberal education will tend to remove them.

But positive testimony can be introduced, going to show that females between the ages of fourteen and twenty-two years, while they pursue, with occasional intermission, the academic and collegiate studies, do not lose their physical vigor, nor undermine their health. President Angel says, "I may be permitted to bear witness that our experience does not by any means justify the fear that the work of our Institution in either department cannot be done by young women without detriment to their health. I can emphatically repeat what I said a year ago, that I doubt if an equal number of young women in any other pursuit of life have been in better health during this year than those who have been under our roof." Grant that in this instance the best woman is compared with the average, and that, therefore, the proof is inconclusive; yet evidence confirming this point can be introduced by a large number of schools which have admitted, for over twenty years, female students of all grades of attainments and physical energy.

THE VALUE OF LITERATURE TO TEACHERS.

It must be admitted that in this age of universal reading, teachers should not fall behind in this intellectual race which seems to be urging us forward at such rate of speed as almost to take away all power of thought. When we see men, women and children, issuing from the public library of the town or city, our first impression is that we are a remarkably literary people. And if the reading through of volume after volume, mostly works of fiction, is an indication of our literary taste, we are so most emphatically. But is there not another view of this subject?

Grant that quantity is something, yet reading alone does not make a people literary. It does not even create a literary taste, though it does generally produce a restless, morbid sentimentalism which is injurious to a healthy tone of mind and morals. Sound literary judgment and correct literary tastes do, in a great measure, depend upon the quality of the reading, and the thoroughness and reflection given to the subject.

A large majority of the books published are not deserving of a careful perusal; there is hardly an idea in them worth preserving; consequently, it is worse than a waste of time to read them. What books we should read, and what we can do without, is an important and perplexing question, and one which no person ever can decide for another; but out of the great number and variety that are influential for good, we should select those best adapted to our especial necessities, those that are most potential in elevating and enlarging the mind and reforming the feelings, and those that treat of such subjects as are matters of daily conversation and use.

Now, in the world of thought, or literature, the medium of thought, there are pictures so grand in conception, so beautiful in form and coloring, so rich in ideal, that they inspire us with a deeper reverence for nature's work in the kingdom of the mind than for her development in her domain of matter. The region of literature is almost boundless, and all that lies within the capacity of any one, is merely to gather a few grains of gold from its abundant storehouse.

Although there are, at the present time, many books published, and there cannot be time to read all, yet, if those who assume the responsibility of guiding the education of others, do not have a tolerably extensive acquaintance with books, both of the past and present time, are they not to be classed among those who are weighed in the balance and found wanting?

Scarcely a lesson is heard in which there is not the need of literature, science or art, to explain the figures and allusions not understood by pupils, but which have become interwoven with all branches of education. Take, for example, an ordinary reading lesson, prose or poetry, selected from any school book in common use, especially those used by the more advanced classes, and how many questions might be asked by an inquisitive pupil which would puzzle a teacher to answer if not well protected by the breastplate of knowledge.

It is not easy to conceal the poverty of an impoverished mind from the penetrating eyes of a bright class, and do you not think that the teacher who failed to answer the questions would suffer in the estimation of the pupil?

But it may be said that pupils are not expected to understand these things, that they do not trouble themselves about the sense of the author, but read merely to acquire facility in pronouncing words. Then, if this be the case, the efforts of pupil and teacher have been in a great measure misdirected. Taste, the perception of the good and beautiful in literature and art, is for the most part the result of cultivation; it is not the spontaneous growth of undisciplined minds; hence a child must be led gradually to see the beauty and fitness of language, and must be taught to understand and admire the noble thoughts of others.

The question then arises, can any one be better adapted to conduct the young learner into the wide and fertile fields of

literature than the teacher who, day after day, is leaving the impress of her mind and character upon those under her instruction?

Is any teacher discouraged at the pressing demands made for the mental preparation of the school-room, and at the seeming impossibility of meeting them? No doubt such discouragements have met every teacher, but, instead of deterring her from duty, they ought to incite her to establish habits of reading thoughtfully some of the best authors of our language, and translations of the best from other languages, unless she is so thoroughly educated as to be able to read them in the original.

Aside from professional reasons, teachers at the present day should aim at a wider culture, a more elevated standard of intellectual attainments than ever before. The times demand it, and the children who are now daily by your side will look back in future years with fond remembrance to those who so carefully and faithfully guided their minds into those paths which have given them keen pleasure and enjoyment at every turn in their journey of life.—*Maine Journal of Education.*

LANGUAGE.—"Every language," says Richter, "is a dictionary of faded metaphors." Our languages in their present state, as known to the inner consciousness of those who use them, are but herbariums in which lie pressed and preserved, but unappreciated, the dry forms of words that once were green with life and beauty, and as now handled are but the relics of their former selves. As used by the ancients, to whom they were vernaculars, the dead languages (as with very ironical propriety they are often called by those who thus speak of them, since in all their inner beauties as well as in all their outward scientific relations, they are so opaque and dead to them) were full, in whatever light they saw them, of ever changing, opaline brilliancy. "Apples of gold in pictures of silver," were those dear old "words fitly spoken," to their interior sense; yea, rather gems which had been dropped to their consciousness from a mother's hand into theirs, and which seemed in their very brightness to reflect forever that mother's smile. And to the student now, who comprehends the power of words, to whom they are transparent, revealing all their inmost essence to his lingering gaze, their lost light returns again, and language is evermore living and lovely.

THE BEGINNING OF INSTRUCTION.—It is a very practical philosophy which demands undivided attention to the duties of the present hour. And the majority of teachers in the school-room do well, perhaps, to conform to it. But the best view cannot be narrowed to the present. The child brings with him accumulations of knowledge and experience that must be recognized by the teacher. Locke's *tabula rasa* dates so far back in the child-life that neither memory nor philosophy need take any account of it. Instruction begins at the boundary between the *known* and the *unknown*, and for all time employs itself with enlarging the domains of the former.

There is one thing at the outset in the work of instruction which has never been done: The *powers and attainments of the child at the commencement of school-life have not been measured preparatory to giving it new knowledge.* It is viciously assumed, generally, that the child knows nothing, must learn every thing. A moment's reflection will convince the teacher that this assumption violates the first principles of teaching. *Proceed from the known to the unknown.* The child must know something to be able to take a single step forward. A recognition of this fact would leave the wise teacher diligently to inquire into the *past* of every mind, and carefully to note what is found in the progress of the inquiry. If this be not done the instruction attempted must be at a venture, producing uncertain results.

HE that does a base thing in zeal for his friend burns the golden thread that ties their hearts together.

EDUCATION IN THE FAMILY.—Every family should have its educational journal. The progress of education in our land should be known to all. That the *Record* may contribute its mite in the diffusion of educational intelligence is our hope. We are not laboring with the idea that the result of our work will be seen on the morrow. The influence of the teacher will not ripen until the boy shall have grown to manhood and have lived out his life. We propose to publish such articles on educational topics as will impart valuable information, and at the same time make the readers more zealous in their duties to the cause. Our task is not a light one, and we know not that we shall be able to do it satisfactorily. Yet we shall strive to merit the support that may be given to us. It is for you, friends, to say whether you will support our enterprise. If you believe we are in the right, come over and help us. Give us your aid and sympathy. Let us scatter throughout our State, good seed that may spring up and bear a hundred fold. There are many who are indifferent to our work, let us win them to labor with us. In the work of education there are no cliques, no rings; all must be united and harmonious.—*Vermont School Record.*

CARDINAL PRINCIPLES.—These three cardinal principles our forefathers never lost sight of, namely, a free State, a free School, and a free Church. Self-preservation imposes upon our government the duty of educating the people sufficiently to qualify them to exercise intelligently the right of suffrage. Conscious of this, every free State established a system of free schools.

So great and beneficent has been their influence upon the people, that the material prosperity, intellectual and moral development, respect for law and obedience to it, in each State, may be relatively measured and calculated by the condition of the free public schools.

IF a man makes himself a worm he must not complain when he is trodden on.

PURPOSE IN TEACHING.—There must be an animating purpose in teaching, as in every pursuit. Without such purpose the business is a lifeless, almost barren routine of tasks. And that purpose in its full breadth comprehends mind in all its attainments, its energies and its possibilities. Some one looking at Niagara, with all the enthusiasm at his command, pronounces it "very *fine*." Another in conversation upon great writers, declares "Shakspeare is quite a poet." In like manner will many a teacher most highly estimate the character and dignity of his calling. And the strangely small and poor results wrought in many schoolrooms are the evidences of shallow purposes, narrow views, and immature fruits. We need not look for a reason. To the ordinary teacher the child's mind is a common-place affair, a plaything, or a useful machine. You cannot make it appear a thing more exalted to the teacher, because the horizon of his own mental culture is too narrowly bounded. "The eye sees only what it brings the power to see." And the field of vision of such an one is not only limited, but is remarkable for the lack of objects that go to make up a scene that stirs enthusiasm.

MAGNITUDE OF THE SCHOOL INTEREST.—We have in the United States over fourteen and a half millions (14,500,000) of children of the school age; we expend annually for schools over ninety-five millions (95,000,000) of dollars, which is equal to one-third of one per cent. of the value of the property, real and personal, of the whole country, as returned by the last census; and we employ two hundred and twenty-one thousand (221,000) teachers. This is our standing army, and those are our raw recruits. Their arms are the pen and the slate pencil; their munitions of war the text-books; their forts and arsenals the school-houses; and the enemy they are enlisted to conquer, ignorance and bigotry. Through the munificence of the government, the finest building that springs up in every village in our new States and Territories is the public school-house. Like the light of heaven and the water of the earth, it is open and free alike to rich and poor.

The Relation of our Public Schools to Crime.

BY A. D. HENDRICKSON, WAUKESHA.

This may appear to some a strange relationship. It is, however, valid and must be conceded. Crime implies a criminal. All criminals are or once were children, and in our country children, with few exceptions, do or should attend the public school. The public school is the instituted means of the state to fit the child for a good citizen. The prevalence of crime and the multitude of criminals in our country, attest the fact that very many of our citizens are not good citizens. Hence we come briefly to the conclusion that the public schools of the state sustain a relationship to the criminal citizens of the state.

It may seem a very simple proposition, too simple to repeat in words, that every criminal was once a child, but, let us consider it for a moment, each criminal of to-day was once a child—a child of the state—not a criminal then. His growth and development have been principally directed—if directed at all—by his parent, his teacher and his religious instructor. The home, the school and the church, are the three principal instrumentalities by which manhood is developed. I have named these in the order of their respective importance. This responsibility unquestionably falls first upon the parent; secondly, upon the state, and finally upon benevolence and charity.

While some parents do meet this responsibility, many do not. Some cannot, some will not, some are dead and their children are orphans. Of those who have the means and could and should do it, how few, comparatively, there are who do it well. The American method of doing business is such that most fathers are at home only during the hours when their children are sleeping, and often not then. Many mothers are too occupied with household duties to see to the educational and moral wants of their children, while many others—it is painful to know—occupy their time in dress and fashion at the expense of their children's mental and moral growth. In short—for I have not time to enlarge—American children are not as a rule home educated.

As to the educational facilities of the church they are only occasional and wholly inadequate to meet the demands of the case. They are indispensible in their place, but limited in their application. The sermon, the lecture, the Sunday school, the festival, and the pastoral visit, are essentials, but alone can not develop the man. Indeed they are not designed to do this. The sun may give light and heat, but air and earth are equally needful to the growth of vegetation; so the church has its mission, but leaves to the public school the principal work of educating the child.

It will be observed that I use the term education in its most comprehensive sense, and as I consider, its true sense. The leading out to a complete development of all that constitutes the man and the citizen. We can easily conceive of a person learned who is not educated. I have assumed also that a truly educated person will be a *good* citizen. This I most thoroughly believe. "Train up a child in the way he should go and when he is old he will not depart from it," is a truth of the ancient records and no law of nature or precept of the gospel will bear the trial and test of application better than this. The apparent exceptions—of which there are many—are instances in which *teaching*, or perhaps more correctly, *talking* is mistaken for training. The sum of what I desire to say on this point is briefly this: first, a child well educated will seldom, if ever become a criminal; and, secondly, the public school is mainly responsible for the education of children of the state and consequently for much of the crime committed. This will perhaps be regarded as taking strong ground possibly an untenable position. It will, however, stand or fall in the light of investigation. First we are to consider that much of the wrong doing of children and youth is not crime. We must distinguish between the criminal proper and the ignorant and unfortunate wrongdoer. A child early inured in to theft may

become an adept in his art and learn to elude the detective just as he would the sting of the wasp or the bite of a dog, and yet have no adequate sense of wrong. His was a wrong education. He is not a criminal. This will withdraw one large class from what is considered the criminal army.

Again poverty—squalid poverty—gnawing with hunger—shivering with cold—without home or house or friend is a condition in life that forms an excuse for the child, and the youth who has never been taught and trained in the ways of uprightness never taught at home to earn an honest living. If not exonerated entirely, he should be regarded as a semi-criminal and dealt with accordingly.

Several other classes of so-called criminals could be named, who through ignorance or misfortune, commit crime and suffer the penalty of the law, when with suitable early training and direction would have spent their life-energies in productive industry, and added to the sum of human happiness instead of living the life of the parasite.

I cannot, on this point, do better than to quote from Dr. Pierce of New York City. His position and experience of over fifty years of daily contact with the delinquents of New England and the Middle States constitutes him good authority. In his report to the National Prison Congress at St. Louis in May last, he said, "These persons are, in some sense, *born* criminals, and they are certainly, from their birth, *nurtured* in vice. They are the children of criminals and drunken parents, passing their wretched youth in the lowest streets, and in the most miserable homes in the city. Their parents are often the inmates of prisons. They have been familiar with every form of vice and crime from their infancy. They have been at times juvenile street merchants, boot-blacks and newspaper venders. They were the petty thieves of the docks, entry sneaks, till tappers, and pick-pockets. Their dexterity in these criminal pursuits has been developed under the instruction of their parents or older confederates. They are at an early age hired by maturer criminals, and their thievish work arranged to their hands in accordance with their aptitudes. They snatch goods exposed in the doorways of stores; they quickly appropriate property from express wagons; they become expert in harbor and river thefts; and, changing night into day, they prosecute the work of their villainous trades while men sleep, and rest while honest persons are at work. These youths have no moral training. This side of their nature is not simply left uncultured in the right way, but it is fearfully perverted. Conscience is trained to give absolutely false decisions. They look upon thieving as their profession, and believe it to be perfectly legitimate business. When they reach a certain maturity of years, they become the most reckless, the most accomplished, and the most dangerous classes of criminals in the community."

Mr. Brace, the Secretary of the New York Children's Aid Society, in his report, also at St. Louis, used the following language: "It is remarkable how considerable a number of children have literally no home and lead a life as nomadic as that of the Bedouins of the desert. Some are the children of drunkards, who have driven them from home by their neglect and brutality; some are the victims of step-parents; some are sent forth because they cannot be supported; some are orphans, suddenly cast on the world by the death of their parents; some are strangers, who have drifted into the city; and a few are runaways. They soon form the petty thieves, burglars, criminals, and abandoned of the city. They are the nucleus of its dangerous classes."

What is true of the cities of the east is also so of the west, and in proportion to population the west is in advance in crime.

We boast of our public school system and with good reason. Personally—if I may be allowed to speak—I will say there is no one element in the economy of the American government that deserves higher praise or promises more for the progress and stability of the nation than our system of public instruction. I have striven

to show my attachment to it by thirty-five years of labor in the teachers' ranks—poor though it may have been, it has been given with a devout love for the cause. I say this to show that I am not influenced by any feeling averse to the public school interest am not wishing to attack the system. If I have any influence, I wish to use it to perfect and strengthen the system. But I *do* think it needs *pruning* and *grafting*. It is designed and with adequate modifications is competent to constitute the American nation the most intelligent and free nation on the globe. But to do this the public school must bring ALL the youth under its influence. But what does our last census tell us. Over four and a half millions of the citizens of these United States cannot read and over five and a half millions cannot write. Of this number there live in Wisconsin over thirty-five thousand who cannot read, and nearly fifty-six thousand who cannot write their own names. In 1870, and we have reason to know that the number is increasing, there were 116,102 paupers in the United States supported at an annual cost of eleven million dollars—36,562 persons convicted of crime and 33,000 supported in prisons. Of this number our state has its proportional share. But, these figures, large as they are, fall far short of showing the amount and cost of the pauperism and crime of the country. Every man believes that there are more rogues out of state prison than in it, and more who live by theft and dishonesty out of the almshouses and jails of the country than are supported in them. We ought to be sensible, but I fear we are not, that a rival antagonist is in our midst. There does exist a system of instruction that is wider and more extended than our public school system which in some important sense is in advance of ours. All educators come in frequent contact with its pupils, some times with its graduates, but, all do not know the extent of their system. I call it a system, and truthfully. They have their Primary, Intermediate and High Schools. Their Academies, Seminaries, Normals and Universities. Their places of instruction are far more numerous than ours. Their teachers also greatly outnumber the teachers of the Public Schools. Their professors can show proof of more consumption of midnight oil than the most arduous among us. They devote more hours of the day and many more of the night, and more days of the year to their work—they take no vacation—work the hardest on holidays—do not stop to rest even on the Sabbath. The absence of sun light or gas light is no discouragement to their work. No storm at sea or tornado on land intimidates or impedes their progress; shipwrecks, conflagrations and financial panics are alike propitious to their success. Do you ask where these schools are to be found? I can only reply, it is difficult to locate them. Many of the primary departments are in the streets and alleys, garrets and cellars of our large towns and cities, their intermediate in the saloons, billiard and gambling halls and other public places of resort. The jails and lock-ups will correspond to the high school—and some of these—as for example the Tombs in New York City, to the most notorious of the normals. The correction houses and Bridewells answer to the academies and seminaries. We have our State University in Madison, they have one at Waupun. In New York they have two, one at Auburn and one at Sing-Sing. As to their series of readers and text-books *they* are even more numerous and *cheaper* than ours. The low novel with its vulgar pictures, comic and obscene songs, are very popular. They employ the oral method of instruction and the concert method of recitation. They do not confine themselves to the English, but use the sign language freely—indeed, they give the sign language the decided preference. They seldom lack for pupils, instructors or means of instruction. Their graduates are proficients, they seldom fail in their attempts to secure funds; with pistol or pepper, they are equally successful. The banker, the merchant, the buyer, the seller, natives and foreigners, all are taxed and all pay tribute to their multifarious and all-pervading machinations.

But I shall exhaust my time before I reach the main thought. I have before said our public school system needed pruning and grafting. I have also said that all criminals were once children, and let it be remembered that each child has a residence in some school district or ward. The public school, I repeat, should educate this child. If the parent and guardian does not see to his child's education the authorities should. If parents and guardians are not able to clothe their children decently, the state had better do it. It is both humane and politic to do it. It is cheaper to prevent crime than to punish the criminal even, if money only is considered, but this is a secondary consideration compared with saving a criminal and making a citizen. The nations of the world, both civilized and uncivilized for generations past, have sought to diminish and prevent crime by administering punishment and have signally failed. In a census of forty millions we have forty thousand criminals. This company Carlyle denominates the Devil's Regiment. Could these all be swept into perdition in an instant, how soon forty thousand more would rally into rank and file; they would come from the streets, saloons, garrets, cellars, gutters, jails and prisons of the land. Our only hope is to prevent, not to cure. We must take care of the children and grow them up as they should go. *This* will dry up the stream of vice at the fountain head. This I verily believe can be done, and I hesitate not to say I believe the public school aided and sustained as it surely will be by enlightened public sentiment and protected by law is fully able to do. To do this, however, its policy must be changed somewhat. It must not do as it now does, expel the incorrigible and give him over to the street school to join the Devil's army. Let there be in each city and large town and as many others in the country as are needed, a *department of the public school*, into which all the incorrigible and delinquents may be gathered, and into which also all idlers and vagrants from every street, lane, alley, nook and corner of the land that can be picked by a vigilent police, shall be compelled to come and learn to read and work. Such a school or department would need appliances not usual or needful in ordinary schools. Many of its pupils would come destitute, filthy, hungry and homeless, these wants must of necessity be met, and to do this and at the same time provide for the adequate future care and wants of this destitute or neglected class some manual labor would need to be provided. Ignorance and idleness are the two enemies of mankind. Both of which must be provided against and their victims provided for. *Industry must be cultivated.* If the young do not grow up with capacity to be self-supporting they will most assuredly become criminals. In these departments which I propose to have engrafted upon or added to the public school all habitual delinquents and idlers should be gathered, *compelled* both to learn and work. The book learning of these departments should not embrace a high grade, but the discipline should be thorough, the education also should be thorough, embracing the hand, the head, the heart, the conscience and the taste. Proficients should be promoted on attaining reasonable results, and on the other hand the delinquents and incorrigible from other departments of schools should be sent to these reformatory-industrial deprtments for correction and reformation.

This is but a brief, and as I am aware, quite an imperfect outline of the plan proposed. For it I claim no originality, unless it be its adaptability to our public school system. Similar schools have been in existence for twenty or thirty years in portions of Europe. Sheriff Watson, of Aberdeen, Scotland, has the credit of originating the system. I quote the following from good authority: "In some localities of Aberdeenshire it has cut up juvenile delinquency by the roots, and well nigh annihilated juvenile crime." Such a result I believe to be attainable by the public school system of our country, which could it be reached, would render property more secure, diminish largely the burden of taxation, nearly

depopulate the poor-houses, jails and penitentiaries, elevate all classes of society, and secure the perpetuity of the nation.

This is a noble work, one worthy not only the educator, but the statesmen, the philanthropist and the christian.

MICHIGAN STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

BY S. R. WINCHELL, MILWAUKEE.

The Peninsular State, it must be acknowledged, has ever been our western pioneer in educational progress. The first in the Union she established and generously provided for the maintenance of an Agricultural College, with a liberal course of instruction. With no precedent upon which to rely, she was bold to furnish a precedent which several other states have already largely followed. Her State University has for many years been the guiding star in matters pertaining to higher education, and whenever the University of Michigan has dared to lead the way, other colleges and universities have dared to follow. Now she comes to the front again in the successful establishment of another school of an entirely new kind. Not waiting for other states to first assume the risks incident to a new enterprise. She accepted the position, acknowledged the need and the propriety of a state public school for dependent children, and without delay set about the work of its organization. From the first annual report of the Board of Control of this institution, to the legislature of the state, we gather the following facts:

The school is situated at Coldwater, this city having donated 27 acres of land and $25,000 for its construction. It is comprised in one main building and five cottages, the latter being (very sensibly) constructed only two stories high, the second floor being used for sleeping-rooms only; the school-rooms are on the first floor. The children provided for are those dependent on the public for support, preference being given to the children of soldiers and sailors, and those who are in the county poor-houses. It was declared in the act organizing the school that the special object was to provide temporary homes for the children until they could be placed in good families under a contract ensuring them good treatment and a fair elementary education. While they remained in the school they were to be educated in the branches usually taught in the common schools, and were to have proper physical and moral training. After they were sixteen years of age, they were not to be retained except by consent of the Board. Attention is called in this report to the fact that "this is not a reformatory institution, in the ordinary acceptance of that term. Magistrates have no authority to send children here, directly or indirectly; not even the Judge of Probate, as he simply decides on the question of dependence. When there is a vacancy here for a county, then the only material questions for the Judge to decide are, Is the child dependent on the public for support, and is he healthy, mentally and physically? There is nothing penal about the procedure from the first to the last. Misdemeanors, crimes, or vagrancy do not open the doors of this school for any. The dependent child, through the manner prescribed, is sent here to a temporary home, which is a public school, where he is, for the time he is here, maintained and educated by the State. There is no taint of crime attaching to any child by reason of his being an inmate of this school."

By investigation it has been discovered that there are now in the State 339 children admissable to the school, while provision is made for only about half that number. Professor Zelotes Truesdel, the superintendent, reports the institution already filled to its utmost capacity, although it was not opened for the reception of children till the 21st day of May, 1874. We understand that he proposes to introduce the kindergarten system of instruction. In his report he says: "Our children, in most cases, come to us in an uncultivated condition, many of them with pernicious habits—indolence, lying, swearing and fighting being a common practice of many of the boys." "All who are old enough to perform physical labor work three hours each day. They are

employed in the dining-room, in the kitchen, in the laundry, in taking care of the cottages, in the tailor shop and on the farm." "Each child attends school 4½ hours a day—2½ hours in the forenoon and two hours during the afternoon." "We have five cottages with thirty-six children in each." "These cottages are the homes of the children; here they sleep, play, read, sew and receive instruction in deportment, morals and manners." Professor Truesdel was formerly superintendent of schools in the city of Flint, but the State, recognizing his superior fitness for the position, chose him as the director of this new enterprise—as Superintendent of the State Public School.

RATIO AND PROPORTION.

BY W. L. RANKIN, WAUKESHA.

An article in the January number of this JOURNAL has suggested the offer of a contribution on the subject of Ratio and Proportion. It is a subject which the writer has found a peculiarly interesting one, in teaching Arithmetic, and he begs leave to present somewhat in detail his method of developing the subject.

Let us suppose the class before us, ready to listen and to answer:

Ratio is the quotient arising from dividing one number by another. It is therefore the result of division and all its principles are derivable from the laws of division. Given the example in division, 24÷4, what is the dividend? 24. The divisor? 4. The quotient? 6. From 24 how do we derive 4? Divide by 6. From 4 how do we get 24? Multiply by 6. Six then expresses the relation between the two numbers. It is the stepping stone by which we ascend or descend from one to the other.

Writing the numbers one over the other, thus, $\frac{24}{4}$, what have we? A fraction. What has the dividend become? The numerator. The divisor? The denominator. The quotient? The value of the fraction, thus: value of $\frac{24}{4}=6$. Here we have a complete correspondence of terms and of relations. The numerator divided by 6 gives the denominator; the denominator multiplied by 6 gives the numerator.

Now these terms may be written in a third way, 24:4. The two terms together are here called a *couplet;* the former, the *antecedent*, the latter the *consequent*, and their quotient the *ratio*. The terms and their relations are the same as in division and in fractions. And there are only three possible problems in *Ratio*. (1.) Given the antecedent and the consequent, how find the ratio? Ans. Divide the antecedent by the consequent. (2.) Given the antecedent and the ratio, how find the consequent? Ans. Divide the antecedent by the ratio. (3.) Given the consequent and the ratio, how find the antecedent? Ans. Multiply the consequent by the ratio. Let this be thoroughly explained and illustrated by sufficient examples. Observe that of the three terms, one is the product of the other two. Hence when it is given and one of the factors, the process is division. When the two factors are given, the process is multiplication.

Whenever, therefore, the two terms of a couplet are given, what can be obtained from them? The *ratio*. When one term and the ratio are given, what can be found? The other term. Now suppose there are *two couplets* having the *same ratio;* of what use will one couplet be in supplying a missing term in the other couplet? Ans. The first couplet will give the ratio; this ratio used in the second couplet either as a multiplier or as a divisor will give the missing term. To illustrate: Suppose 42 the antecedent of another couplet having the same ratio as 24 to 4, what will be the consequent? Ans. The ratio is 6, and 42 divided by 6 gives 7. Hence the couplet is 42:7. The consequent in another couplet of equal ratio is $2\frac{2}{3}$, what will be the antecedent? Ans. It will be $2\frac{2}{3}$ multiplied by 6, equal to 16. And the couplet is $16:2\frac{2}{3}$. We have then $24:4=42:7=16:2\frac{2}{3}$, the ratio in each case being 6.

Now an equality of two ratios is called a *proportion*, and is written 24:4::42:7, meaning simply that the ratio of 24 to 4 equals the ratio of 42 to 7. It involves

two couplets and four terms. If three of these are given, the fourth may always be found. How? The three given terms will of course include one couplet and one odd term. The full couplet will give the ratio; the odd term, multiplied or divided by this ratio, will give the fourth term. Let this also be abundantly illustrated by examples, in which each of the four terms successively shall be required. Insist in every case upon the pupil's finding the *ratio*, as a separate quantity, whether fractional or entire, and using this as a factor in passing from the known to the unknown. This is the philosophic way of solving proportion, in accordance with the definition of proportion; and the pupil should have so clear an understanding of the method as to be able to apply it in every case, if required.

There is, however, another method which is very often more convenient, and which we may now briefly allude to.

The definition of a proportion is an equality of ratios. A *property* of proportions is that the product of the extremes equals the product of the means. In the proportion 24:4::42:7, the product of $24 \times 7 = 168$, and the product of $4 \times 42 = 168$. How may this be shown to be true of proportions in general? We will give two proofs.

First. From the nature of the case. Take any given ratio, such as 5:15. What shall we multiply its two terms by, to produce equal products? Evidently not by the same number, for then the ratio will remain unchanged; but the less term must have a greater multiplier, and as many times greater as the term is times less, that is, the ratio of multipliers must equal the ratio of terms, taken in inverse order. If 15 is multiplied by 2, 5, which is ⅓ of 15, must be multiplied by 3 times 2, or 6. The terms and their multipliers arranged in order, give the proportion, 5:15::2:6. Hence, having two equal ratios, or a proportion, the first antecedent multiplied by the second consequent, equals the second antecedent multiplied by the first consequent. Or, in other words, the product of the extremes equals the product of the means.

Second Demonstration. Take the proportion $a:b::c:d$. Then $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$. Now, if these equal quantities are multiplied by b, the products will be equal. Multiplying, we have $a = \frac{b \times c}{d}$ Again, multiplying both quantities by d, we have $a \times d = b \times c$. But a and d are extremes and b and c are means. Hence, &c. (This demonstration does not presuppose any knowledge of Algebra.)

This property of proportions is made the basis of their solution. When three terms are given, they will be either two means and an extreme, or two extremes and a mean. The product of either extremes or means divided by the odd term, will give the fourth term.

A *compound ratio* is obtained by multiplying together the corresponding terms of two or more single couplets. The ratio will then be the product of the simple ratios. Every compound couplet may be reduced to a simple one by performing the multiplication indicated.

A *compound proportion* is usually an equality between a simple and a compound ratio. It is solved upon the principles explained above; every compound term being treated just as a simple term.

In our next article we will discuss *direct* and *inverse ratio*, and their application to the solution of problems.

PROBLEMS.

1. A licensed liquor agent received from his predecessor $32.17 in cash, and $57.54 in liquors. During the year he sold liquor to the amount of $102.97. He also bought liquors for which he paid $59.91, and at the close of the year he turned over to his successor in office liquors to the amount of $31.37. His salary for his services was $25.00. *Query*—Was he indebted to the town, or was the town indebted to him? and what was the indebtedness either way? A form of his account, with solution, would be desirable.

2. I hold six cents in my right hand, and a certain number (not named) in my

left hand. Now if I multiply the number in both hands by the number (not named) in my left hand, the product will be 112. It is required by an *arithmetical* process, without recourse to algebraic quantities, to determine the number not named. A formula or rule for performing similar examples, arithmetically, would constitute a perfect solution.

I would like to have the above examples worked and explained in your next JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

A SUBSCRIBER.

GOVERNMENT SHOULD NOT TEACH RELIGION.—Our government cannot give religious education; because while protecting each citizen in the undisturbed enjoyment of his own religion, as a sacred matter between him and his Maker, and thus tolerating all religions, it has none of its own, and cannot favor any sect or denomination or class.

The whole letter and spirit of the Constitution of the United States, as well as of the several States, prohibits the establishment either directly or indirectly of a State religion; or the showing any favor or giving any protection, privileges, or financial support to one religious sect more than to another. Protection to all equally, but support to none, is, on this point, the organic law of America.

If the churches would not interfere with the government's secular education, but would devote the whole of their strength to giving, in their own places and manner, religious education, they and the government, though working in different spheres and different buildings, would act in entire harmony, and would in the end produce the best possible general result. By simply protecting religion, but not teaching it, government is, as a matter of fact, giving the utmost genuine vitality and strength to the religious element.

SCHOOLS THE PREVENTITIVE OF PAUPERISM.—An examination of the statistics of England, Scotland, Ireland, and of the different countries of Europe, indicate that, other things being equal, pauperism is in the inverse ratio of the education of the mass of the people; that is, as education increases, pauperism decreases, and as education decreases, pauperism increases. The same rule holds good in our country. Taking the three States of Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois for illustration, we find that of the illiterate persons *one in ten is a pauper;* while of the rest of the population only *one in three hundred* is a pauper. In other words, a given number of persons suffered to grow up in ignorance furnish on the average *thirty times as many paupers* as the same person would if required to get such an education as our free public schools afford. Add to this that they furnish also *ten times the number of criminals*, and the right as well as the duty of government, as the protector of society, to enforce general education is clear, for it is the plain obligation of government to protect society, against pauperism and crime.

CRIME AND IGNORANCE.—In France, from 1867 to 1869, one-half the inhabitants could neither read nor write; and this one-half furnished ninety-five per cent, of the persons arrested for crime, and eighty-seven per cent. of those convicted. In other words, an ignorant person, on the average, committed seven times the number of crimes that one not ignorant did.

In the six New England States of our own country, only seven per cent. of the inhabitants, above the age of ten years, can neither read nor write; yet eighty per cent. of the crime in those States is committed by this small minority; in other words, a person there without education commits fifty-three times as many crimes as one with education.

In New York and Pennsylvania an ignorant person commits on the average seven times the number of crimes that one who can read and write commits, and in the whole United States the illiterate person commits ten times the number of crimes that the educated one does.

The above facts are derived from official statistics.

ILLEGAL SCHOOLS—AN IMPORTANT MATTER.

BY A COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT.

The following communication was not sent for insertion in the JOURNAL, so far as we know, and the name of the writer is therefore withheld. The problem discussed is an important one, and the remedy suggested deserving of the most serious consideration. The facts stated by the writer—and similar ones exist in every direction—furnish a new and cogent reason for the measure presented in the last number of the JOURNAL, the support of the public schools in some considerable degree by a State Tax. This would make it possible to control and in good measure correct the evil complained of:

Dear Sir—We have in this county—and there are such in other counties—localities which are exclusively occupied by a foreign element, not a single one of whom can understand English. On account of national and church prejudices, these people do not take kindly to our public schools and often refuse to send to them. Sometimes this animosity is carried farther and the districts wholly refuse or neglect to provide five months legal school, stating that they are willing to loose the "school fund income" and risk the legal consequences. Schools have been taught in this county by persons who were never examined under our system, and they have been paid from the public moneys of the district treasury. Other schools have been taught and paid for as above in which not a word of English was taught from beginning to end of a three or four months term.

Now, I ask how these districts can be reached? As I understand the school law, complaints and prosecutions must come from people resident in the districts committing the irregularities. But as these people are all of one nationality and one mind, they all concur in covering up and upholding their way of handling the school business, and consequently the practice grows and is copied by other districts and while wanting to stop their way of doing, I do not see how to take hold of it.

I think the simplest and most effective way would be to make the school moneys come wholly or in great part from the State and not depend on district appropriations to the same extent as now; then if the people failed to comply with the law, their loss would be severe enough to make them realize that transgression is hard. They say the school fund income amounts to little or nothing toward supporting a year's school, and it takes nothing from them which they have had in possession and consequently they say they can not have lost anything because they never had it to lose.

I think we need a firmer hold on the problem of Americanizing the enormous emigration poured into Wisconsin, especially where they settle in large communities to the total exclusion of other nationalities. Respectfully yours,

——— ———.

The following from a teacher names another remedy proposed by an intelligent German:

There is another subject that I am asked to write you about. It is the number of months required by law to be taught in our schools in order to entitle them to public money. Now many of the German districts take advantage of the law and hold school *only* five months. They do so in this district and Mr.——— here says they would have but three months if the law would allow. For this reason he thinks that there should be 7 or at least 6 months required, and he wishes me to write to you about it. He is the only educated man around here, and though a German by birth, he is also a thorough American. Living here for years as he has, he knows just what trouble the *wooden shoes* make in educational matters.

DESPISE a man, and you become of the the kind you would make him; love him and you lift him into yours.

HE who commences with certainty will end with doubts, but he who is content to begin with doubts may end with certainty.

QUESTIONS.

We have received the following, and submit them for answer:

Dear Sir—I should be pleased to have an explanation given to the following questions:

1. What is supposed to be the reason why the earth is flattened at the poles?

2. What would be the climate, supposing the earth's axis to be horizontal to the plane of its orbit?

3. Why would the inclination of the earth affect the climate?

4. Supposing the earth's inclination to be 30°, or any other degree, how would we ascertain the width of the several zones?

5. How do we ascertain the length of a degree of longitude to any distance from the equator?

6. Is the length of the longest day, at the equator, *exactly* twelve hours? How do we ascertain the length of the days at various places, as at the tropics and polar circles?

7. Why were the polar circles placed 23½° from the poles?

The above questions I do not understand as fully as I desire, and if you will write out clear explanations for me, I will be much pleased. The geography states that the days are always exactly twelve hours long at the equator. It would seem to me as if there must be a variation as the sun moves north or south from the equator. If I am not asking too much I should also like to receive an answer in regard to *exactly* how the United States obtained all of their territory, and what are the portions obtained from different sources. I have examined several histories, but they do not agree. The Louisiana Tract is somewhat doubtful in my mind. A TEACHER.

WE can investigate severally the phenomena of matter and mind, as we can severally the constitution of the earth, and the architecture of the heavens; we seek the boundary line of their junction, as the child chases the horizon, only to discover that it flies as we pursue it.—*Mansel.*

On the Proper Method of Studying Language.

BY A. F. NORTH, PEWAUKEE.

A boy is educated, so far as school is concerned, when he can read intelligibly and intelligently, reason logically and express himself clearly and correctly, orally and with the pen; because all knowledge is then within his grasp and he can utilize it, its acquisition being simply a matter of time and labor. This amount of education every boy and girl in the state should receive, and the school that fails to do this for every child of fair capacity attending regularly, is itself a failure. But it is notorious that the scholars who are able to do the last, viz: to express themselves correctly and clearly. are the exception. On every hand we hear the excuse, "I understand it, but I can't tell it." Now the power of *expressing* is the complement of *knowing*, and the inability to tell what one knows is *primæ facie* evidence that there is some defect of knowledge. Any system of education that ignores the culture of this power of stating what one thinks in good plain English, is not worthy the name. No amount of declaiming the words of others can take its place. Yet schools of all grades send out hundreds of pupils annually deficient in this respect, and this for no other reason than the very plain one—they have never systematically taught them the art.

It is true, many months have been spent in the so-called study of grammar, it may be both English and classical. The pupil can parse and construe and do all things of a technical and formal kind which are so dear to the perfunctory teacher, but he cannot *use* his native language, and this simply because he has not been *trained* to do so. The fact is, teachers in general have been endeavoring to teach the science of language without bringing the student in conscious contact with the language itself. We have attempted the folly of teaching the science of language in order to acquire its use, instead of developing its science in its use, and this to the detriment of both the ends sought in education, to wit:

the acquisition of scientific habits of thought, and practical power in the use of the matter of study.

Thoughtful teachers and scholars have been conscious of this unhappy state of things. The scholars from a sense of lack of healthy interest in grammatical studies, and the teachers from observing that the most fluent technical grammarians were very often far from being the most fluent and correct in the use of language.

A cause of this state of things which itself may have been a consequence, is found in the character of our text-books. The authors of our grammars have neither lacked industry nor erudition, but their plan is faulty, and our teachers have been controlled by the text-books. Within the last few years text-books radically different have been prepared both in England and the United States. Among these we may mention Hadley's Language Lessons. But by far the most complete and best adapted to every grade of school is *Harper's Language Series*, by Professor Swinton.

The principle upon which these works are constructed is the rational one in education, viz: *If you would have a scholar understand anything have him do it.* The scholar is set about composing from the beginning, not in an aimless way, but with some specific point of importance in view. It may be the proper use of *capitals* and the *period*—the agreement of the *subject* and *verb*—the proper form of *adjectives*—the proper form, use and position of *adverbs*—of phrases and clauses, etc. One thing at a time, and that clearly presented. Nor are they expected to spin these out of an empty head. The teacher does not require them as of old, Pharaoh-like, to make bricks without straw. The material is provided in the text-book, and they are to put it in proper form, in regard to penmanship, spelling and style. Each scholar submits his composition to one of his fellow-students for criticism, who in a letter in his best style to the teacher, reports what he finds excellent or amiss. The teacher in turn carefully examines both notes and composition and returns with such remarks as they demand, and closes with an oral examination with regard to the laws of language specially involved in the exercise.

I have adopted this system in my school this term with the most satisfactory results. The scholars enter into it with zeal and pleasure. By it they learn at the same time, business habits, penmanship, orthography, grammar and composition. Everything about it is *practical.* Of course it involves some labor both to scholar and teacher; but it is most productive labor. Teachers who care more for their pay than for the progress of their scholars, or who lack gumption, will not favor this method, but I am convinced that teachers who are in earnest will find it the thing they have been desiring, and will find their reward for the extra labor that devolves upon them in the manifest improvement of their schools.

From what I know of the agent for these works—W. J. Button, 117 State street, Chicago—I have no doubt he would send specimen copies to any teacher or member of school board applying for the same, upon enclosing a few cents for postage. The middle one of the series, entitled "Language Lessons," is in my judgment best adapted for our common schools. I hope those interested in education will interest themselves in this matter, that our children may no longer have it said of them that everything of a practical nature has to be acquired by them after leaving school.

METRIC STANDARDS.

BY PROF. J. T. LOVEWELL, NEW HAVEN, CONNECTICUT.

The Metric System had its origin in a report from a committee of the French Academy, to whom Talleyrand's motion for an improved system of weights and measures, had been referred to the National Assembly in 1890. In accordance with the recommendations of this report, a Commission of the most eminent scientific men, not only of France, but of for-

eign countries, were appointed to make the necessary arrangements for constructing the definitive standards.

Acting under their direction the mechanician, Lenoir, constructed two platinum and twelve iron metres.

One of the platinum metres was, by act of the Assembly, Dec. 9, 1799, made the legal standard and deposited in the Palace of the Archives, from which circumstance, it has since been known as the *Metre des Archives.* It is a platinum bar of rectangular form, having a breadth of 25 mm. (0.984 in.) and thickness of 3.5 mm. (0.138 in.) The ends are planes perpendicular to the axis of length, and a straight line between them, taken at 0° centigrade, is the true length of the metre. This kind of metre is what the French call *Metre a bouts*, or end standard metre.

The other platinum metre is kept at the Observatory of Paris as the accessible representative of the standard, while the twelve iron metres were distributed among foreign countries; and one of them is in possession of the Academy of Sciences of Philadelphia.

The next most important unit in the metric system is the killogramme, the weight of a cubic decimetre of distilled water at its maximum density.

The French Commission had two representatives of this weight constructed by Fortin. One was of platinum and the other of brass, and the former was made a legal standard, at the same time with the metre, and deposited with it; hence it is known as the Killogramme des Archives. It is a cylinder 39.4 mm. (1¼ in.) in diameter, and 39.7 mm. high, with the edges slightly rounded.

The brass killogramme was intended as the commercial standard, and was made in the form of a cylinder surmounted by a knob, the uniform shape, adopted in France, for brass weights. It was deposited at the Ministere de l'Interieure, Paris.

A platinum copy of the standard killogramme is kept at the Paris Observatory, and this, with the metre, kept at the same place, are considered next in authority to the standards of the Archives.

The metric system in spite of its advantages and the almost unanimous support of scientific men met with much opposition at first, and did not come into common use, even in France, till a stringent law for that pnrpose was enacted in 1837. Since then it has made its way rapidly, so that now, according to President Barnard's "Metric System," published in 1872, it has been adopted, in full, by twenty-one governments, representing 336,419,595 people; and is partially adopted or permitted, as in the United States, by ten other countries, including Great Britain.

With a view to secure uniformity and establish a truly international system of weights and measures a Commission was appointed in 1869 by the French government. At a late meeting of this Commission twenty-nine governments were represented by fifty members, and in spite of the jealousies and delays, induced by war and other causes, the Commission are now actually, through their agents in Paris, engaged in constructing international standards for length and weight which will soon be ready for distribution.

The standards of the Archives will be the basis of these international standards, but the form of the metric bars will be novel and ingenious.

The metre a bouts, or end standard metre, is not thought so convenient for comparison as the metre a traits or line metre. In the latter the bar is made a little longer than the required standard, and the metre is the distance between two very fine lines traced upon it perpendicular to the axis of the bar. To insure the distance being taken in the neutral axis of the bar, sometimes cylindrical holes are drilled in the side of the bar and the lines traced on the bottoms of these holes. This is inconvenient on many accounts; and it has been thought best to have a bar with a cross section somewhat like the letter X. The section is represented better by dividing the X by a perpendicular into two equal parts, and joining these by a band 3 mm. broad which is the thickness of other parts of the cross section. This band is placed low

enough so that its upper surface lies in the center of gravity as well as in the neutral axis of the bar, and furnishes a plane for tracing the lines which determine the metre and any of its sub-divisions that may be thought necessary. The bar, as first constructed, is 102 centimetres in length and has a square section of 2 centimetres (nearly ⅘ inches). It is bro't to the required X form by planing longitudinal grooves in each of the four sides and then finishing by drawing.

The important question of a material for these standards was settled by chosing an alloy of pure platinum with 10 per cent. of iridium. This composition is unalterable by the ordinary action of fire, water and other chemical agents. It is elastic, strong, and nearly equals tempered steel in hardness. Besides, it has nearly the same coefficient of expansion as the standards of the Archives which facilitates the comparison with these original prototypes.

To secure homogeneity of structure and perfect uniformity in all the standards, it was deemed best to fuse the entire amount of platinum-iridium into a single ingot which weigned 250 killogrammes or 551.15 lbs. avoirdupois.

The difficulty of this preliminary operation may be imagined when we remember that the melting point of platinum is 1900° Centigrade, and that of iridium is about 2400° C. or 4352° Fahrenheit. The melting, however, was successfully performed by a blast flame of oxy-hydrogen gas.

The occasion was of sufficient interest to secure the presence of President Mac Mahon and a large number of distinguished guests and officials. The ingot as first cast was about 44 9 in. long and 5.9 in. broad and 2.8 in. high.

It was forged next by a hammer weighing over 11,000 lbs. until brought into a bar whose cross section was 2.5 mm. The defining lines are to be cut with a diamond point and each transverse line is crossed at right angles by two longitudinal lines 1 mm. apart. The intercepted portion defines the length of the metre. These lines will not be over .003 mm. in breadth—*i. e.*, $\frac{1}{10000}$ of an inch or far too fine to be easily seen by the unassisted eye.

According to "Les Mondes," the metal for these standards cost about 250,000 francs. The Commission has already received orders for 45 metres at the price of 3,500 francs, and of the killogrammes at the price of 1,500 francs. There is considerable dispute about the international bureau which it is proposed to form, as to location and jurisdiction.

The question of international unification of money standards on the metric basis is of more difficult solution than the above. Our Metrological Society, of which Dr. Barnard is President, made this one of their chief topics in a recent meeting in New York. Then there are still greater difficulties to secure units of force, heat, light, and electricity which shall harmonize, but the last and greatest difficulty will be to secure the requisite legislation and overcome the prejudices and habits of generations.

The progress of the last forty years warrants the belief that all these obstacles to an international metrical system will be finally overcome.

ACADEMIC INSTRUCTION.

BY A. H. WELD, RIVER FALLS.

Private schools, seminaries and academies often meet a local demand which it is not the province of the common schools to supply. Whatever name or guise they assume, if they are serviceable to the cause of education, they are worthy of patronage, and a generous local support. But the State, by extending its aid to such institutions indiscriminately, or by assuming the control of their organization or management, would encumber its educational system and waste its resources upon the abortive scheme.

But I believe it will be admitted by the principal educators in the state that there is need of better facilities for elementary classical instruction than those which have hitherto been provided in our public system of education. The State University ought to be relieved from the necessity of a preparatory department. To

effect so desirable an object, and to give the University its legitimate strength and influence, no plan appears so feasible as the establishment of one or more elementary classical schools, in which such branches only shall be taught, and to such an extent, as are necessary to meet the requirements for admission to the College of Letters or the College of Arts in the University.

The New England Colleges are free from the incumbrance of preparatory work. Candidates for admission to the Freshman classes are already graduates from schools and academies second only to the colleges in their standing, and in the extent of their course of study. Some of these academies were nearly co-existent with the oldest colleges, and by means of munificent endowments, have risen to a commanding position in classical training, and have become indispensable auxiliaries to the college system. Of some intermediate academic institutions of similar character and design, there is at the present time in the state of Wisconsin, an imperative need. The University needs them. The rural districts need them. In every part of the state we meet with the inquiry, where shall I go to prepare for the University? To the Normal School? These are restricted by law to a specific end, an end vitally important to popular education and to the efficiency of our common schools. To High Schools? These for the most part are under the control of municipalities. They may and often do afford excellent facilities for classical instruction, but their privileges must of necessity be mostly confined within corporate limits. Economy convenience, progress and efficiency in our system of education, favor the establishment of classical high schools or academies. They should be on a scale commensurate with their design, and in all respects equal to the best institutions of their kind in the country.

When and how to move in such an enterprise are questions which require for their solution comprehensive thought, experience and prudent deliberation. It is analagous to fixing new planets in the solar system in such relations as not to disturb existing harmonies. But when the demand for such institutions is generally admitted, and their value and importance to the University, and, in fact, to all the colleges in the state are fully understood, then we may hope that ways and means will be devised adequate to the end proposed. Discussions on the subject in the State Association of teachers will serve to awaken interest, and expose deficiencies in our means of classical instruction. They may ultimately lead to wise and liberal legislation favorable to such a movement, like that which has in time past done great credit to the state in advancing its educational interests. Such discussion may also lead to private munificence and local contributions, which without legislative aid have established and endowed not only the colleges and professional schools in New England, but most of her leading academic institutions.

But in view of the work now in progress to perfect the system of popular education, to improve the condition of our public schools and to increase the facilities for the education of teachers; in view of the pressing demands of the State University for a more permanent and liberal appropriations, and in view of the partially tried experiment of making all the graded schools of the state feeders to this institution; and in view of the necessity of invoking private, local and legislative aid for the establishment of academic schools of such character and standing as their high purpose requires, it would seem to endanger the success of so desirable an enterprise, to move prematurely towards its consummation.

TEACHING IN ANSWER TO A CONSCIOUS WANT.

The question often arises, What are the requisites for effective teaching? Various answers have been given. An exhaustive answer would require a full statement of all the conditions which pertain to the pupil, the teacher, and the matter taught. Assuming the presence of all the other conditions, we propose here to show that

the best permanent effect is produced upon the child's mind when instruction meets a *real want*, when it answers to a *present craving* of his mind.

Much valuable instruction is lost, not because it is above the capacity of the pupil, not because it is too abstract, but because he has no relish for it. He has never hungered for it. If taken at all, it is accompanied with an unfeigned disgust and followed by a mental dyspepsia. In a majority of cases it is in no proper sense taken at all; it glides from him like water from an oiled surface. Even if he forces the memory to retain the form, his intellect does not grasp the substance. Teaching implies learning, and learning is but the satisfying of a mental craving. That such a craving exists in the minds of children no one will doubt. The teacher who, at once, discovering its whereabouts, makes this the objective point for his earliest movement, shows himself master of his business. He will win. The children will gather around him, ply him with questions and take in his replies with an avidity which will show that they are absorbing his instructions with real relish.

Having once gained their confidence, and having given them an unmistakable pledge of his ability and desire to minister to their real wants, he is able to modify and change the current of these wants at pleasure. He who has amused and instructed a child by pointing out the parts of his toy engine, showing the purpose and the plan of their operations, will have no difficulty in awakening a desire to know the purpose and plan of the several steps in any arithmetical process, or in any other process that shall come up in the school-room. He will be wise enough, of course, to avoid all hasty and abrupt transitions in his movement towards the development of new wants. But this he will do, and must do, if he perform the proper function of a teacher. In fact, here lies the secret of the teacher's power. It is as much his duty to awaken the proper aspirations of his pupil as it is to guide, cherish, and sustain them when awakened.

A child can be easily led to cherish a fondness for nature or art, for science or literature. But he must not be loaded down with crude material for which there has been no previous preparation. The skillful teacher not only sees the path through which the learner must be made to go, but gradually opens the way by awakening an intense curiosity to survey "the regions beyond." Thus is the want created in anticipation of the supply. Who cannot remember in his own experience of having completed a process wholly innocent of the idea that it ever had any purpose, or any connection with real life? What must we suppose to be the mental state of children when made to urge their way through their daily tasks without aim or plan, or consciousness that a single inward craving is answered? To be more specific: A child is about to enter upon the study of Numeration and Notation. The instances are rare in which the pupil is at the outset put into sympathy with the *real wants* of the case—much less with the beauty and simplicity of the method by which the want is answered in the Arabic system of notation. The real want is a system of marks, or figures, which will represent every number from zero upward to the highest conceivable one. Adopt the plan of representing each number by a separate mark, and you will fail to find a sufficient number of *different* figures to represent them; and if you could succeed, it would cost a lifetime to master them. The mastery of the Chinese language would be a simple task in comparison with it. A child might easily be made to see this difficulty. Let him then see how it is obviated by the *few* characters employed in the Roman method; and finally show him how the Arabic method accomplishes the same result, with a vast advantage in the matter of numerical calculation. The time and labor spent on this would be more than repaid by the facilities which it would give the pupil in all arithmetical processes. What has been said in relation to a conscious want as an essential antecedent to all effective teaching, is equally true of what may be called

the *wants of the case* in the various steps of a problem. * * * * *

It is not meant here to say that the pupil should never take a statement on trust. This he must often do. But he who learns to take the statements of an author only as a sort of assurance that his own researches will lead to the same results, will be sure to clear the way, so far as can be done, of all misapprehension and doubt. Let any teacher who feels conscious of having fallen into a dogmatic way of presenting his thoughts, or of an undue reliance upon the text-books, simply ask himself if he is really meeting the wants of his classes—if he is meeting a reasonable expectation of his employes, and especially if he is satisfying his sense of justice and duty to the children under his care. The impressions made upon the child will go far to determine his entire future.—Prof. S. S. GREENE, *Brown University, in N. E. Jour. of Ed.*

SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

The following extracts from a recent address before the Missouri State Teachers' Association, are pertinent:—

Supervision, strict and constant, characterizes all successful business enterprises. He who hires a dozen laborers either superintends them himself or employs a foreman. Each railroad and factory has its superintendent and assistant superintendents. It pays. City schools are managed by business men on business principles. Each city has its school superintendent, with one or more assistants. It pays. The schools of the rural districts alone are without supervision. To leave the hundred teachers of a county isolated, without a plan, without a directing head, without supervision, is a reckless waste. It is contrary to common sense, and to all business principles.

When the people are led to realize the utter impossibility of securing the best results without supervision, they will *demand* an efficient county superintendency. It will pay.

The argument from experience is unanswerable. Educational progress has ever been in the direct ratio of the efficiency of the supervision. Upon this subject Europe speaks with startling emphasis. The experience of the older States demonstrates the necessity of supervision. New York, in 1847, abolished the county superintendency. Public clamor demanded this action. For long years the dial of improvement and progress was set back. At length a suffering people clamored for its restoration, and in 1856 this was done. For eighteen years the progress has been wonderful. In New York the county superintendency has no opposition.

Pennsylvania, as an educational State, up to 1854, stood low indeed. For twenty years a superintendent has labored in each county of the State. Now she stands the peer of the most advanced. Her progress during those years has been marvelous. In all the State not a voice is raised against the county superintendency.

Two years ago Indiana substituted an efficient county superintendency for an inefficient commissioner. That it pays is evident from the report of the State Superintendent the past year.

Thus it appears that the State of Indiana has been benefited $146,507.38 by adopting her system of county superintendency, when those items that can be considered in a financial point of view are carefully examined and the results obtained. There are other and higher benefits resulting from this system, the results of which can only be seen in the general effect upon the illiteracy of the State, which time alone will reveal, and upon the rapid increase of the school funds and revenues, which is already indicated in the reports of this office.

The county superintendency will pay an hundred fold in dollars, and it will pay in a much higher sense. The mass of our teachers will always be comparatively inexperienced; yet they deal with immortal minds. That they may labor wisely they must needs be watched over and directed by master workmen. The right development of child mind is of priceless value.

No narrow, sordid consideration should have weight here. But let the people be aroused to the educational value of the county superintendency, and they will scorn a policy that would save dollars and ruin minds.

[Not less pertinent are the remarks below. The proposed reform in the manner of filling the office cannot be brought about effectually, except we also get rid of the nuisance of the single district system. The writer below would remand the election to the school directors. This is the Pennsylvania plan. But Pennsylvania having the town system, has but one board of directors for each town. We are not sure that it would not be an improvement to appoint the county superintendent through a meeting of delegates from each town board, provided we had the town boards:—EDS. JOURNAL.]

That our system of county supervision has not in all respects come up to our expectations need not be denied; that there is room for improvement all well informed in school matters will readily admit. But it is reform that is needed, not destruction; improvement, not overthrow. A wise man will not burn his barn to get rid of the rats.

The most pressing need of reform just now is in the manner of choosing this officer. By the present plan he is nominated at a political caucus at the same time and place as other county officers. The other candidates are named first, and then the superintendent must be geographically located just right, or he must be such a man as will give weight to the party, or one who has done the party service and must be rewarded by the nomination,—these and many other considerations determine the choice of the man, rather than his fitness for the work: *that* is often the last thing considered, if, indeed, it be considered at all. The only remarkable thing about the situation is, not that some incompetent officers have found a way into the superintendency, but rather that with such a defective system of selection, so many excellent superintendents have been chosen; for we have superintendents in this State who would make their mark anywhere—who honor the calling in which they are engaged.

Now we propose that the choice of county superintendent be taken out of the political caucus altogether, and that the duty of choosing this officer devolve on the directors of the several districts, who can meet biennially for this purpose. We would also have this convention fix the compensation, as an annual salary per diem or otherwise. This plan leaves the choice of a superintendent with those best qualified to judge of his fitness, and without any side issues to disqualify them for judging of his fitness. Geographical and political considerations will not be in the way, as they often are in political nominating conventions. The directors can look over the whole county and find the best man.

It is somewhat strange that while *city* superintendents of schools are almost universally chosen by school boards, for *country* districts so many States should cling to the popular election plan. If it be said that this is more democratic to elect by the people, the reply is obvious, that before the people have a chance to vote for a candidate he must first pass through the nominating convention. It may also be urged in favor of the proposed change, that a superintendent elected by the directors without regard to party, would be free from that suspicion of partisan management, so often a hindrance to the labors of an earnest worker. There can be little doubt that the plan proposed will be effective, both in securing better men, and at the same time leave them less trammeled by party obligations, and hindrances of that kind. If we consult experience on this question, we find that Pennsylvania has been selecting her superintendents in this way—by convention of directors—for eighteen years, with ever increasing satisfaction, and the system has steadily grown in popular favor. To show how completely in that State the whole matter has been taken out of the domain of political chicanery, it is only necessary to mention the fact that Demo-

cratic superintendents have been elected in strong Republican counties. Twice in the last six years, Hon. J. P. Wickersham, a life-long, outspoken Republican, has been confirmed as State Superintendent by a legislature largely Democratic, without one dissenting voice.

When we have succeeded in eliminating party politics from the management of our school system, we shall have removed from it its greatest weakness and most threatening danger. Messrs. Legislators, we ask you to be careful about pulling down our present system till we are sure of a better. The experience and study of years is not thus lightly to be shoved aside. The superintendency may be improved and strengthened, but not safely destroyed.—*Nebraska Teacher.*

THE WISCONSIN DECISION.

[We were surprised at a remark on this decision in the December number of the *National Teacher*, but it appears from the article below that it was made by an editor *pro tem*, and not by Ex-Superintendent White.]

FRIEND WHITE; I am glad to learn from your January issue that the December editorial, commenting on the decision of the Supreme Court of Wisconsin on the rights of parents to limit and name "the studies their children shall pursue in the public schools," does not state your position. I am sure that every superintendent of schools and every teacher of considerable experience will take exception to the statement of the *pro tem* editor, that among the rights of parents is "the right to determine what studies of those provided for, their children, if competent, shall pursue"—a statement made without qualification.

Now, if it be conceded that parents have this right, the sooner we abandon all system of gradation in our schools, and adopt the *elective* system, the better, because it must result in this sooner or later. If all parents were reasonable and capable to judge in a matter of this nature, the case might be somewhat different. But every teacher of considerable experience knows full well that a large majority of parents know comparatively little of the actual wants and capabilities of their children in such matters, and are hence not the proper persons to decide as to the studies which they should be required to pursue.

Furthermore, very many parents are exceedingly indulgent, and are ready, if allowed to do so, to heed the whims and caprices of their children, and suffer them to drop one study and take up another, as they may take a fancy so to do, without any reason whatever for so doing, or for reasons the most frivolous. Ask the superintendent of your city schools how often he is applied to by parents, to suffer their children to omit certain of the studies belonging to the regular course, or to drop them, for no other reason than that they are tired of them, or, in other words, that they are absolutely too indolent to apply their minds to study?

Again, we find in every community many parents who hold to the notion that only a knowledge of reading and writing, or, at farthest, of reading, writing and arithmetic, is essential, and, if suffered to have their own way, would so far deprive their children of their rights, as to limit their studies to these branches.

Now I freely admit that the matter of "averages," "percentages," etc., are of comparatively little importance except as they may serve as stimuli in producing desired results. Nevertheless, system is all in all, and gradation is essential to system, and can not be abandoned, particularly in large schools, whether public or private. But if the matter of choice or selection of studies is to be given over to the parents, our graded systems become a farce. One parent desires that his child shall give his time exclusively to arithmetic; another to arithmetic and writing; another to writing alone. Still another is willing and desirous that his child know something of geography, but is not willing that he should take up this study until he has perfected himself in arithmetic. The two will be too many for him.

It will not do to say that such things

would not be likely to occur, or that parents are too reasonable to make such demands. They *do* make such demands even now, and not in a few instances only; and were it not that there are laws and rules to prevent yielding to them in these matters, the schools would, in many instances, become *un*systemetized and demoralized.

Take, for instance, the intermediate grades in the Columbus schools, with pupils ranging from 9 to 13 years of age, and in which only reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography are required to be taught—not "nine or ten" studies, but only four. Say to parents, "These are the studies prescribed for these grades, but there is no compulsion. You may elect among them such as you desire to have your children pursue. If arithmetic only, arithmetic it shall be. If writing and arithmetic, all right. If you desire that geography only shall be omitted, your wish is the law in the matter." Ask Superintendent Stevenson, of the Columbus schools, what would be the effect of such a regulation? What would be done when the time for the promotion of classes arrives? Here are one set of pupils quite up to the standard in arithmetic, but deficient in all other branches. Another set are ready in reading and writing, but know nothing of arithmetic and geography. Another set may be qualified in all the required branches except geography. Still another set may be fully up to the standard in all the studies belonging to these grades. Now, what is to be done? Shall all be carried forward indiscriminately? Or, shall those be left behind who are found deficient in a part of the course? If the latter, what will be done in the case of that indignant father who comes forward and says: "I hve exercised the right conceded by your rule, of electing the studies which I desired my child to pursue, and he is, in these studies, quite up to your standard for promotion, and I demand that he shall go forward with his class rather than fall back into a class of inferior grade. And furthermore, now that he has got a good start in these studies which he has pursued, it is my pleasure that he shall take up one or more of the the studies which he has omitted, for instance, geography, since it is also a branch prescribed for the grade to which he is to go; and if not qualified to enter the class in the study or studies omitted, the teacher may instruct him separately; and, until he gets along so as to enter the regular classes, he may omit one or more of the studies which he has been pursuing." Now, what will be done in such a case? It can not consistently be said that the child has forfeited his right to promotion. The parent has only exercised a right conceded by the rule, and one which according to the opinion of your editor and in accordance with the decision of the Wisconsin Supreme Court, he had a perfect right to exercise by virtue of the parental relation.

Now, I shall not undertake to say, that it would in no instance be right and proper to permit a pupil to omit one or more branches from the regular course. Cases do occur in which this should be allowed. But when allowed it should be as an exception, and the reason or reasons should be so palpable and so plainly stated, that all may see the justice of the case. And the parent should not be sole judge in the matter, for, as before stated, many parents are exceedingly unreasonable and indulgent in the management of their children. The teacher and the school authorities should have some voice in the matter. It is not reasonable to suppose that they will act unfairly or unjustly in such a matter.

If I mistake not, there is a provision in the school law of Ohio, to the effect that boards of education may prescribe the branches of study to be pursued in the schools of the state; and in case a pupil, of his own option, or by direction of the parent, shall refuse to pursue any study prescribed for a particular school or grade, the committee may direct that such pupil shall not be taught in other other branches; and, in the absence of such order, the teacher may refuse to instruct such pupil in other studies. Such, too, is the law in other states, and if I

mistake not it is the common law of the land.—*F. S. W., of Wheeling, West Va., in National Teacher.*

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

Q. Can territory be detached from a district without being attached to some other district?

A. The law does not contemplate or authorize any such procedure.

Q. If parties are set off from one district to another, is there any legal claim for a share of the school property of the district from which they are detached?

A. None whatever; such a claim exists only when a new district is formed from an old one. In other cases, loss and gain are supposed to be equal.

Q. Is a town board absolutely obliged to extinguish a district that goes without school two years?

A. The law makes it their duty to do so, and the law may be enforced by *mandamus.*

Q. Can any part of such a district be attached to a district in another town?

A. With the consent and concurrent action of the supervisors of the other town it can be done.

Q. Can money in a district treasury that was received from the State be applied to the payment of debts of a district extinguished by the supervisors, under section 16?

A. The law makes no exception as to such money. The supervisors are to treat it just the same as any other property that belonged to the district coming into their hands.

Q. Can a district borrow from the "trust funds," unless a majority of the votes of the district are shown to be in favor of it?

A. The land commissioners interpret the words, "unless such application be authorized by a vote of a majority of the legal votes of said district voting upon such question," to mean that the application is authorized, if a majority of the votes cast at a legal meeting are in favor of the loan. If some of the voters do not care to attend the meeting, the rest act without them.

Q. Our district failed last year, simply through inadvertence, to have 5 months school, before the 31st of August, but the continuance of the summer school made it up after that date. Are we not justly entitled to school money?

A. No departure from the law is provided for, except some "unusual and unlooked for cause has prevented keeping up the school the full five months." It would be extremely bad policy to relax the law in cases of mere inadvertence—*i. e.*, carelessness. Everybody is supposed to know that the school year begins September 1 and ends August 31.

Q. Can a district raise money to buy school-books to be procured by the board and sold to the pupils?

A. No such power is given to a district. Books may be purchased for the use of indigent children. (Sec. 51.) A bill is before the legislature to authorize towns and cities to buy school-books for free use in the schools.

Q. The clerk returned the school taxes $100 short, by mistake; what is the remedy—the money is needed at once?

A. Vote the amount at a special meeting, and collect as provided in section 64.

THE TOWN SYSTEM.

Q. In the transition from the single district system to that of the "township system of school government," are we to understand that the school district board, (viz., clerk, director and treasurer) retain their respective offices officiating therein until the end of the school year, or do the clerks forming the new school board commence at once the duties of their offices?

A. The director and treasurer must be understood to retain power, with the clerk, to finish up the business of the district, pay debts, &c. The clerks organize, as a town board, at the first annual meeting, in October. It would be quite *proper* for the districts to hold their last annual meeting, the week previous, hear the report of the treasurer and wind up all their affairs, as far as may be. The old districts

are not discharged of their obligations, by the incoming of the new system. The two systems therefore in some sense overlap each other.

THE SCHOOL BOARD.

Q. Three months winter school was voted and a teacher hired; then an additional month was voted, but two of the board will not extend the contract. What is to be done?

A. The board may not feel willing to continue the same teacher an additional month, and are not obliged to, but it is their duty in that case to provide for another teacher.

Q. Whose place is it to clean the school-house, the teacher's or the district's?

A. The district's—that is to say, the board should provide, not only for a school-house, but for every thing else to make the school-house comfortable and decent.

Q. Can the school board, by a rule, require the large boys to clean the school-house privies every week, by turns?

A. A board would hardly be sustained in enforcing such a rule by suspension or expulsion. Of course, however, strict rules are proper as to the general habits and conduct of pupils in the use of the privies.

Q. Can the board expel a pupil for violating a rule never "established" and "filed" with the clerk?

A. The rule should first be established and filed, that it may be known what the rules are. But a school board would be justified in removing a pupil for very flagrant misconduct, irrespective of rules, on the same principle that they would be justified in excluding one with an infectious disease—the principle of the common safety.

Q. Has the board power to take such measures as will virtually exclude the larger pupils from the school?

A. The board is not justified in taking any such measures. The district may determine whether a male or female teacher shall be employed for the winter, or for the summer school. If not determined by the district, the board will use its own discretion. It is commonly understood that the winter school is more especially for the older pupils and the summer school for the younger; but beyond the fact that the teacher employed at different seasons may not be equally capable of teaching both classes, the board has no power to exclude either old or young pupils within the limits of school age, but must give all a fair chance. Of course provision is not to be made for the older pupils in the higher branches to the neglect of the younger ones, or by the sacrifice of any part of elementary instruction. The adoption of the "town system" would help to solve this and many other perplexing problems.

Q. Can the county superintendent and school board determine that only Orthoepy, Geography, Grammar, Civil Government and Written Arithmetic shall be taught in a school?

A. The *law* requires that all these branches shall be taught, (section 55, and chap. 14, laws of 1871, p. 84, school code), orthoepy being nothing more than correct pronunciation, which should be taught in connection with reading and spelling and in fact all branches; and civil government is taught by teaching the "constitutions." There is no need for school officers to prescribe that the several branches which you name shall be taught, and they have no power to absolutely exclude them or any others required by law. But there is of course some discretion lodged with the board as to the time when and the extent to which any particular branches shall be taught, according to the age, advancement and wants of the scholars. (See preceding question and answer.) The power of the county superintendent in the matter is that of advice and general oversight, and it may be presumed that his advice is worthy to be followed.

Q. Is not a school board clothed with arbitrary and wrongful power, if it can require all scholars belonging to a class to take all the studies of the class, unless exempted for reason? (See your opinion in Feb. No.)

A. A public school is not a private

school. It is opened and maintained as a public institution and not for the accommodation of individuals, and in subservience to their wishes, like a hotel. The members of the board are public officers, and from the nature of the case they must have power to make rules, and these rules must be general in their operation, except so far as the board in its discretion, may relax them. If a minor volunteers to join the army, his father consenting, the father retains no right to dictate what part of the manual of arms he shall learn or not learn, what rules he shall be subjected to or exempted from. A school is not indeed under military discipline, but it must be under some discipline or it will fail in its ends. The board may make severe rules, or act arbitrarily in any given case, but the remedy is not to hedge up and neutralize their power by giving the power of individual dictation or interference; it is found in selecting only suitable men for the place.

THE TEACHER.

Q. Is a teacher responsible for a day's school if only two pupils are present at 11 A. M.?

A. The teacher should remain at her post, as others might come; she has then done her part. She need not feel obliged to remain all day, however, with two pupils.

Q. Must the teacher make up for the day, if no scholars come at all?

A. Certainly not. It is not her fault that the storm, or other cause, prevents any school.

Q. Can lost days be made up on legal holidays?

A. Not unless by mutual agreement with the board, and even the board has no legal power to make such an arrangement—the people might object to it.

Q. My school was to commence, by contract, on a certain day, but the school-house was not ready; can I collect wages from the beginning?

A. This is a question for the courts, and a question of circumstances. If you were in readiness to begin, and did not waive your right to begin at the time agreed upon, and have had no employment meanwhile, you would be entitled to equitable compensation.

Q. Our teacher calls the children in school "brutes," "boobies," "fools," etc. What can be done?

A. Dismiss him, if he won't mend his manners and morals.

Q. Our teacher keeps fire most of the time on Saturdays; has he any right to burn school-wood?

A. Perhaps he is "setting copies," "doing the hard sums," etc. If so, he is laudably employed and needs a fire and quiet. Go and see what he is about, and report.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT.

Q. Is a county superintendent authorized by law to refuse or annul certificates because teachers do not fill and return monthly reports, when requested?

A. There is a provision of law in regard to reports from teachers, and it is a growing custom for superintendents to require such reports monthly. If the request is properly made, every teacher of right spirit, it may be presumed, will readily comply. Continued willful refusal would probably be held sufficient cause for annulling a certificate.

UNIVERSAL EDUCATION ESSENTIAL.—Intelligence in the rulers is essential to good government; with us the rulers are the voters, hence the necessity of fitting them by education to rule. With intelligent voters, our form of government is the best yet devised; but with ignorant voters it is one of the worst. An intelligent people seek freedom, and an ignorant one despotism, just as naturally and certainly as the needle points to the magnetic pole.

The founders of our free institutions, two hundred and fifty years ago, saw this, and scarcely had they completed the log cabins for their families, when they began the log school-house for the school and school-master.

The school-house has spread, developed and improved, from Maine to California, equally with the dwelling-house. It is the nursery of American citizens.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

Notice—Save your Postage!

All payments for the year 1875 made by the 1st of April will be regarded as in advance, and the postage on the JOURNAL will be pre-paid, at the cost of the publishers. After that time it will be charged in the bill.

How shall the Town System be Introduced?

In continuation of some remarks made last month we would say that County Superintendents may do much in this direction; and they have a double motive for doing it. Not only will they contribute very greatly to the promotion of public education, if they can induce some of the more intelligent and enterprizing towns under their jurisdiction to take this step in advance, but they will find that in all such towns their labors will be easier and more agreeable, and the evidences of progress and improvement constantly increasing. Especially will they see an immediate contrast when it comes to the now perplexing work of preparing their annual statistical report. We can think of no way in which a County Superintendent can sow good seed more effectually, than by presenting the advantages of the Town System before an intelligent meeting made up of school officers, citizens and teachers. It is possibly not too late to do this, in a few towns, before the annual town meeting. It may perhaps be done in connection with some of the spring examinations.

The next step is to canvass the town in which it is proposed to make the effort. Every school house is an appropriate place in which to take the field. The district officer, citizen or teacher who can get out the voters, and their wives, and everybody in the district, and clearly explain the system and point out its advantages, will have done a good deed. Enough such work would perhaps insure favorable action at town meeting. Whoever undertakes to move in this matter, must see that the petition of ten electors is secured, and the notice given of the proposed vote on the subject, as provided in section 37 of the Township Law.

It should be understood that the transition if made is not sudden, but allows time for the winding up the affairs and discharging the obligations of the separate districts. If a town votes for the system this spring, no organization of the town board takes place until next October; and this organization is only a preliminary step, and no steps for raising money would be taken until the ensuing March. (Sec. 10.) In the mean time the individual districts would keep up their schools and wind up their affairs.

If nothing more is done, notice can be given of a vote on the subject at the spring election; and all who wish to read something further are referred to the Report of the State Superintendent just issued, and the February number of the JOURNAL.

FREE TEXT-BOOKS.

A friend has kindly sent us, with permission to publish, the following extracts from a letter recently received from Mr. Thomas Emerson of New York City. Mr. Emerson is well known at the east as a sound and progressive educator, and speaks from years of intelligent personal observation. He was, until quite recently, City Superintendent of Schools of Newton, Mass.:

"In reply to yours of the 12th inst., I would say that I am a firm believer in free text-books. Instruction in common schools should be given only in the elementary branches, and the text-books should be free to all. Until this is accomplished our common schools are not free schools. Again, free text-books are a necessary sequence of compulsory education. We may compel attendance at school, we cannot compel any one to buy books when he has nothing to buy them with. To furnish books to the poor, as we must do if we enforce attendance, and not to furnish them to the rich, is only to brand the former as paupers, and to help perpetuate the ill-feeling now existing between these two classes.

"The furnishing of text-books free is giving general satisfaction in the east wherever it has been adopted, and the plan is being rapidly extended. It is already in operation in Bath and Lewiston, Me.; New York City; Philadelphia; Paterson and Trenton, N. J.; and other places of less note.

"Boards of Education purchasing supplies for their schools have, as far as I know, secured very liberal discounts. The maximum allowed by the Rules of the Board of Trade is forty per cent."

AFTER THE BATTLE.

We have purposely delayed our present issue for a few days in order to chronicle the educational enactments of the legislative session just closed as we write. In respect to school interests, the session has been a somewhat remarkable one, and our readers are, we suppose, anxious to know just what has been gained and lost. The result is, we are glad to say, upon the whole a cheering one. Educational interests probably never before met so ready and liberal recognition from the State Legislature. We count as victories:

(1.) An appropriation of $80,000 for the erection of a new building for the University. The fact that this met but little opposition, abundantly shows the increasing esteem in which the State University is held. "Science Hall" will greatly enlarge the facilities and increase the influence of the institution, and will remain a noble and permanent memorial of the wisdom of the Legislature of 1875.

(2.) The passage of the High School Bill, whereby the State creates and partially supports a system of Free Town High Schools. We regard this as a highly significant and important event. The State herein distinctly recognizes the value of secondary schools by the offer to them of aid from her own treasury. This aid is small in the aggregate—only $25,000 annually,—but it is probably enough for a beginning, and will be increased if the people find it a good investment, as we doubt not they will.

(3.) The eligibility of women to school offices. In this Wisconsin joins Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, and other Eastern States, as well as her nearer sisters in the West, Illinois, Iowa and Kansas. From this act will utimately result decided benefit. Twenty-five years from now no inconsiderable portion of the school offices of Wisconsin will be in the hands of intelligent and capable women. The very qualities that make women fit teachers *in* the schools must render them to some extent fit *outside* managers of the schools and school interests.

This reform was sanctioned by a decided majority of both houses of the Legislature, through which it went by the force of its own merits, unaided by the least external solicitation.

(4.) The privilege granted to the authorities of school districts, villages and cities, of purchasing text-books and loaning them free to the pupils of the schools. The law thus recognizes and sanctions free text-books. From this we have no doubt good results will come.

We hoped to see, in addition to this, a law securing township uniformity in text-books. The original bill, as drawn by the State Superintendent, contained a clause enforcing this. It received the sanction of the Assembly, but the clause was omitted from the substitute adopted by the Senate. We chiefly regret this because an important movement in the direction of the general adoption of the township system of school government was thus frustrated. We also firmly hold that town uniformity is intrinsically desirable in itself, and that nothing but good would result from it.

THE STATE UNIVERSITY.

Not only did the bill appropriating to the University authorities $80,000 for the erection of a new building for scientific instruction become a law, with little opposition, but the Legislature felt so kindly disposed towards the institution that of its own free will, unsolicited, it did more. One of its last acts was to donate to the University, for the purposes of a Medical College, the Soldiers' Orphans' Home, located in the city of Madison, and no

longer needed for its original object. This property is valuable, but from its location, and the peculiar character of the buildings, it is questionable if the University Regents will not regard the gift as involving some of the perplexities attending the possession of the proverbial "elephant."

UNIFORM EXAMINATIONS.

A bill providing for uniform examinations of teachers in the various counties passed the Assembly, but was defeated in the Senate. Our regret at this result is tempered by the knowledge that some of the best men therein, who voted against it as being a merely superficial remedy for existing faults, would have favored such a radical change in the law as would remove school supervision altogether from the arena of politics. There is a constantly growing conviction that as the chief engineer of a steamship, the superintendent of a line of railway, or the leader of a coast survey should not be elected by popular suffrage every two years and be paid only enough to support his family five or six months out of twelve, so also county superintendents of schools ought not to be the chance creations of political parties and forced by beggarly salaries to a divided allegiance between educational and other interests.

School supervision in counties ought to be in the hands of highly trained, experienced, successful and earnest school men. The superintendent ought in general to be *the best practical teacher* in the county, and he ought to be paid more than the best teacher receives. His position should be permanent, during effective service. He ought to rank in ability, culture, social position and income with the first professional men in the county.

He should also have much more authority and more responsibility than the law now gives him. He should, for instance, settle nearly all the neighborhood quarrels that are now sent up to the State Department for adjudication, should have power to withhold public money by reason of unsuitable buildings, insufficient teachers, means of illustration, etc. He should be responsible for all needed institute work, and for the general efficiency of the schools under his jurisdiction.

One of our best superintendents, himself a successful teacher and institute conductor, writes, after referring to some excellent features in the school system of England, "*We* need a more efficient supervision, from head to foot, in *our* system. Our best men lack power, and our worst ones cannot be reached as our laws now stand."

THE SCHOOL MONTH.

Of the educational bills in which we were specially interested, the only one that failed to pass even one house, was a bill making twenty days a legal school month, in the absence of any such temporal specification in the contract. This bill received the approval of the Assembly Committee on Education, but when before the house itself it met with but little favor. The objections made to it were exceedingly frivolous—"teachers are already better paid than any other class;" "they now work a less number of days per month than any body else," etc.

The fact that in cities, villages and one half the country districts only twenty days are required, the fact that teaching on Saturday is scarcely any where expected or allowed, and when done amounts to almost nothing, and the fact that the bill did not at all concern the question of wages, or the aggregate length of the school,—these facts seem to have almost entirely escaped the apprehension of the Solons who successfully opposed the measure.

A SENSIBLE LETTER, it strikes us, is the following:

BADGER, Dec. 24, 1874.

MR. PRADT:—Enclosed please find one dollar and fifty cents, amount due for JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. I think the December number alone worth half a dollar. Yours with much respect,

ELLEN CONLIN.

SPRING INSTITUTES.

The following is the revised and complete list of Institutes for the present spring:

County.	*Place.*	*Time.*	*Duration.*
	PROF. GRAHAM.		
Fond du Lac,(1)	Fond du Lac.	March 24th	1 week.
Outagamie	Appleton	March 29th	1 week.
Marquette	Westfield	April 5th	1 week.
Waushara	Poy Sippi	April 12th	1 week.
Shawano	Shawano	April 19th	1 week.
	PROF. McGREGOR.		
Dane, (2)	Middleton	March 29th	1 week.
Clark	Neillsville	April 5th	1 week.
Monroe	Glendale	April 12th	1 week.
Iowa	Dodgeville	April 19th	1 week.
Vernon	Ontario	April 26th	1 week.
	PROF. SALISBURY.		
Rock, (2)	Milton	March 22d	1 week.
Columbia	Lodi	March 29th	1 week.
Jefferson	Ft. Atkinson.	April 5th	1 week.
Dodge, (1)	Fox Lake	April 12th	1 week.
Sauk	Delton	April 19th	1 week.
	PROF. PARKER.		
Dane, (1)	Marshall	April 5th	1 week.
Portage	Stevens Po't.	April 12th	1 week.
La Crosse	Bangor	April 19th	1 week.
Pepin	Arkansas	April 26th	1 week.
	PROF. TERRY.		
Richland	Sextonville	March 22d	1 week.
Milwaukee (2)	Wauwatosa	March 29th	1 week.

MR. T. J. VAN MATRE has been appointed County Superintendent of Schools for La Fayette county, in place of Capt. J. G. Knight, resigned.

MR. ALBERT WATKINS, editor of the *National Democrat*, has been appointed County Superintendent in place of W. H. Peck, resigned. We are sorry to note the removal of the latter to Chicago. Mr. Peck was long connected with educational and editorial interests in that county, having been formerly principal of the Mineral Point High School, and afterwards editor and proprietor of the *Democrat*. He was also at one time editor and owner of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Personally known to the present junior editor for many years past, the JOURNAL sends its best wishes for his success and happiness in his new home.

The above make nine appointments of County Superintendents to fill vacancies occurring within about one year. All but two or three of these vacancies were from resignations induced by the better salary and prospects offered by other employments. Could there be a more significant illustration of the unwisdom of the present small salaries and uncertain tenure of this important office?

IN a recent hasty visit to Baraboo we found about 100 teachers in attendance at the fifth semi-annual meeting of the Sauk County Teachers' Association. We doubt if any county in the State is educationally more wide-awake than Sauk. This is due to several facts. It has an energetic and faithful Superintendent in Mr. Jas. T. Lunn, one of whose rare qualifications is the possession of a State Certificate. It is exceptionally well supplied with facilities for higher instruction, the schools at Baraboo, Sauk City, Spring Green, Reedsburg, and one or two other places, being excellent. Prof. Willis, Principal of the High School in the former village, is a graduate of Beloit College and a gentleman of culture and ability. Profs. Terry, Gould, Nagle, and Darrow, all whose names were upon the programme, are widely and favorably known in the State as excellent teachers and courteous men.

With such leaders we did not wonder at the large attendance, and from such schools as they conduct we doubt not influences go forth that place the district schools of Sauk county decidedly above the average of the State.

PROF. B. M. REYNOLDS, of La Crosse, having, from press of other duties, resigned the office of Visitor to Platteville Normal School, Rev. F. M. Holland, of Baraboo, has been appointed to fill the vacancy. Mr. Holland, although not a school man, is a gentleman of fine culture, a close thinker and an accomplished writer. He is a member of the Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, at the recent meeting of which he read a paper that excited much interest and discussion among the metaphysical members.

A RECENT visit to Lodi enabled us to hear a good report of Prof. A. A. Miller, Principal of the High School in that village. Mr. Miller is one of the most promising of the recent graduates of Milton College, a good classical and general scholar, and ambitious to excel in whatever he undertakes. His success at Lodi has not surprised us.

NEW REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY.

The Governor has appointed Gen. Conrad Kretz, of Sheboygan, as a member of the Board of Regents of the University, in the place of Gen. C. S. Hamilton, whose term of office had expired and who had removed from the Fifth Congressional District. This keeps up the military representation on the Board, and secures at the same time a man of high standing and scholarly attainments. The other appointees for this year were announced last month. They are Hon. J. C. Gregory as his own successor for the Second Congressional District; Hon. Matt. Keenan, of Milwaukee, for the Fourth District, in place of Hon. J. R. Brigham; and Hon. Thomas D. Steele, of Sparta, for the Seventh District, in place of Hon. Angus Cameron. These will all be recognized as first-class appointments. The different creeds and nationalities have now a fair representation upon the Board and in the Faculty, which will silence further complaint on that score. The Executive Committee of the Board are Regents Van Slyke, Paul and Gregory.—*Madison Democrat.*

Since the above was in type, the appointment of Hon. F. W. Cotzhausen, of Milwaukee, to succeed President Whitford, of Milton, as member of the Board of Regents, has been announced. While the other members of the Board will deeply regret the absence of Regent Whitford, who has long been one of its wisest and most useful members, they will heartily commend the appointment of ex-Senator Cotzhausen, who is one of the best representatives of fine scholarship and high personal character among our German citizens. The appointment is universally regarded as a fitting and excellent one, alike honorable to the Germans, to the Board and to the Governor.

Senator Cotzhausen was born in Prussia in 1838, was educated in the colleges of Murs and Cologne, from the latter of which he graduated in 1855. He came to the United States the succeeding year and settled at Milwaukee, where he has since resided. He is a lawyer by profession.

NORMAL SCHOOL REGENTS.—The action of Gov. Taylor in re-appointing Hon. Wm. Starr, of Ripon, and Jonathan Evans, Esq., of Platteville, Regents of Normal Schools, is worthy of hearty commendation. Mr. Starr, who has been identified with the board from its organization, has had much to do with moulding the policy under which three Normal schools are now doing a most beneficent work and a fourth has been established, and Mr. Evans, since his appointment by Gov. Washburn, has taken a most intelligent interest in the Normal School work, his residence at the seat of the oldest of the schools enabling him to give it special oversight. The good judgment and business experience of both gentlemen, with their interest in education, make them valuable members of the board.

We learn that the Regents at their recent meeting, provided for the erection of an addition to the building at Whitewater, and arranged for the completion of the building for the Fourth Normal School. This school will open under charge of Prof. W. D. Parker next September.—*State Journal.*

WASHINGTON CO.—We regret that a report of an Institute in this county, held at West Bend, last fall, was mislaid. The reporter, Mr. A. E. Chase, Principal at West Bend, speaks in high terms of the work of Supt. Stewart, of Waukesha, who had charge, and of the results of the Institute, and closes by saying: "Hitherto in Washington county, Institutes have been as angels visits are said to be, but it is to be hoped that in no very distant future, old Washington, second to none of her sisters in material prosperity, may take rank among the first in educational matters."

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND QUERIES, "a medium of intercommunication for teachers," has reached its third number. In the last two we find, among other things, a discussion of *shall* and *will*, of "had rather," of long division, Euclid, and quadrature of the circle; also, many pertinent hints, queries and answers. Intelligent progressive teachers and students, who wish to be posted on all sides, and correct at all points, will find this publication useful.

PROF. LUCIUS HERITAGE, of the St. Paul, Minn. High School, and recently of Milton College, has received a call to a position in the Milwaukee Academy with a salary of $1,400 per annum. We have not learned whether he accepts. Thus within a few weeks the chief cities of two States have sought to win this promising young scholar. We understand he contemplates soon adding to his already fine classical attainments by two or three years additional study in one of the Universities of Germany.

WAUKESHA COUNTY.—Superintendent Stewart says:

"We have recently had the pleasure of visiting two schools in Genesee, in which we found the habit of communicating was practically broken up. The pupils devoted their time and energies to study."

We hope this is not a solitary case, and shall be glad to extend the list of such schools.

MANITOWOC.—All of the schools of this city seem to be in a prosperous condition. The school in the 1st Ward is under the immediate supervision of Prof. C. F. Viebahn; in the 3d Ward, under Mr. Luce, a Platteville graduate; in the 2d Ward, under my own especial care. This last named school is one of the largest in the State, numbering at present six hundred pupils.—H. BARNS.

A COMPLIMENT.—We may be pardoned for printing the following, one of many similar "good words." The writer is one of our old stand-by teachers, and has for some time past been at Green Bay:

"As our State grows older, everything connected with it seems to take on solidity. The JOURNAL seems in keeping with every other enterprise in this direction. L. W. BRIGGS."

IT is proposed to establish in Milwaukee a Medical College to be under the control of the leading American and German physicians and surgeons of that city. It will be the first institution of its kind in this State.

FROM a copy of the Melbourne (Australia) *Argus*, of Dec. 8th, just received, we clip the following paragraph, showing that higher education is esteemed and cultivated in that antipodal continent:

"There have been busy times at the Melbourne University. In addition to the ordinary and honor examinations which annually take place at this period, and which have just been concluded, the matriculation examination commenced on Monday at the Town-hall, Melbourne, and simultaneously at Ballarat, Sandhurst, Geelong, and Hamilton, in Victoria, and also at Adelaide and Mount Gambier, in South Australia, and Hobart Town in Tasmania. The candidates number altogether 458, of whom 286 are being examined in Melbourne. A considerable proportion of the candidates are ladies, many of whom have presented themselves for Euclid and Latin."

Look on this picture and then recall the Australia of thirty years ago. America can scarcely, in any part of its territory, show more surprising progress. The growth of Chicago almost finds a parallel in the growth of Melbourne. The paper from which we cut the above somewhat resembles the New York *Herald* in appearance, multitude of advertisements, etc.

Another paragraph in the paper indicates that "compulsory attendance" has migrated to that sunny land:

"A decision has been given by the Supreme Court which will prevent the compulsory clauses of the Education Statute being enforced till an amending act shall have been passed. Several persons at Williamstown were summoned for not sending their children, between 6 and 15 years of age, to school, and the magistrates imposed nominal fines. One of the parties fined appealed to the Supreme Court, on the ground that there was no proof that the child was within the school age. It was attempted to be argued for the prosecution that the onus of proof rested on the defence, but the court held that it was for the prosecution to prove the age, and therefore decided for the defendant. This decision will necessitate the introduction of an amending act."

A PRIVATE LETTER from a friend who has recently visited Cornell, Syracuse, and Rochester Universities, contains an item of general interest. The writer says: "I was quite struck to see to what extent pictorial representation is used in all departments. In Latin, Greek, Geology, Physics, Natural History, the screen always hangs in the room, and the blinds may be closed at any moment and the lantern set to work. In Cornell they have a photographic department, and had prepared over three thousand glass slides. There the hydrogen and oxygen gas pipes went to every principal room from gasometers in the basement."

THE New York *Tribune* says: "The educational monthly journals seem fresher and better than they used to be. Perhaps the fact is not unconnected with their free appropriation of news from the educational department of the *Tribune*. It would be in better taste, however, if they credited their borrowings." We clip some items from this source.

THE Connecticut *School Journal* urges teachers never to pass over a subject before it is thoroughly understood. It says: "The plea, 'I know it, but I cannot explain it,' should never be accepted as satisfactory. A person who thoroughly understands a thing can explain it. Analagous to this is the necessity of having pupils understand the definitions of the rules and words they use. In short each point should be thoroughly mastered before it is left to proceed to another. This may necessitate slow progress, but the advancement will be real and not merely apparent."

IN the course of an article advising technical education, the Portland *Press* mentions the endeavor of a Boston publishing house to employ American workmen upon a series of heliotype copies of engravings. They began with these native workmen, and found they would make a failure of their undertaking unless they secured workmen having more artistic skill. They now employ in that branch alone forty or fifty men, all of whom except two traveling salesmen are foreigners from different countries of Europe, and with whom they are obliged to converse through interpreters. The smallest salaries are paid to the two traveling salesmen.

THE Macon (Ga.) *Telegraph* says that in its opinion "at least half the young girls of intelligent families are seriously if not fatally injured in these times by excessive demands of teachers and studies. They are drilled to death as to some of them, and as to others they are drilled into chronic nervous disorders—distortions of the body, malady of the lungs, or in some other derangement which clings to them through all the years of life." It adds, "that when a young girl's school recitations and studies and home lessons demand more than six hours of her time, unless she is possessed of more than ordinary physical vigor, she is gaining knowledge at the risk of life and health."

THE report of the Commissioner of Education for 1873 shows that in that year the institutions for the education of women in the United States numbered 210, including 107 "colleges," actual or nominal, which had 24,613 students, including 1,025 in post-graduate and special courses; while 97 co-educational institutions reported 7,357 female students. The whole number of colleges in the country was 323, with 3,108 instructors, and 25,165 preparatory and 25,010 regular students. The scientific schools numbered 68, with 650 instructors, 6,396 regular students, 533 special, 98 post-graduate, and 1,426 preparatory; and there were, besides, 39 "colleges of agriculture and the mechanical arts."

AN educational department is to be opened in the next Indiana Exposition, and will contain specimens of drawing, penmanship, and examination papers from the public and private schools. The regulations are as follows: "Schools enrolling over 2,500 children shall present 50 specimens, and schools enrolling less than 2,500 children shall present 25 specimens from each of the following grades, viz.: Third year, fourth year, fifth year, sixth year, seventh year, and eighth year. High school and collegiate students. The

specimens of each grade shall be uniform in size and bound in one or more volumes, displayed upon a placard. On each specimen shall be stated the age and the grade of the pupil who executed it. All specimens must be sent to the Superintendent of Public Instruction on or before Sept. 1, 1875."

A BOARD of School Trustees in New York has illustrated the imperfection of the Compulsory Education law by a resolution to send all children in their district having neither parents nor guardians, who refuse to comply with the requirements of the Compulsory Education bill, to the House of Refuge.

THE proposed new system of education, embracing all sorts of special and technical instruction, does not receive the approbation of the Hartford *Post*. It says: "A showy and simply outside training must follow inevitably from the adoption of the proposed reform. More ground will be passed over, but none of it will be held and profitably made use of. To imagine that the common school should be made a seminary of learning is a misconception of the public school system. It was never designed to supply the want of academic training, and it cannot be turned from its legitimate field without permanent injury and loss all around."

THE endeavor to introduce technical studies in the common schools is criticised severely by the Toledo *Blade*. It holds that phonography, telegraphy, etc., to be acquired thoroughly, should be taught in technical schools after the completion of the common school education or at least after sufficient attainments have been therein acquired to fit the student for the business pursuits of life. The *Blade* adds: "Sufficient time cannot be spared in our common schools to render the pursuit of technical education profitable, and by its introduction before the pupil has acquired proficiency in all the elementary studies, general inefficiency would be the result, and effect much more harm than good."

A SPEAKER at a recent teachers' meeting in Central New York declared that the school-room Juggernaut is intellectual arithmetic. "Beneath its wheels," he said, "many a bright intellect is crushed. Mental arithmetic lacked practicality; its problems in statement are absurd. The speaker thought the boasted superiority of mental arithmetic as a discipline for the reasoning faculty all nonsense; it was more like the cultivation of memory—and a poor method even to accomplish that. There is no advantage to be gained from rapid mental calculations. The best accountants are not those who carry too much in memory, but those who have the habit of putting everything down. Memory can be cultivated in a far better way than by memorizing problems and analyses."

A TEACHER in the Syracuse High School very sensibly says: "A child who memorizes easily may read over four or five pages of a lesson, and if it be tolerably attractive and readable, by suggestive questioning, 10, 20, or 30 questions may be asked and the child answer them correctly. This will be good proof that the lesson has been read, but not necessarily that the lesson has been studied or mastered. Ask such a scholar, who has been taught in this way, to tell you all he can of a lesson or of a certain topic, and nine chances out of ten he will be able to tell you nothing at all. Again simultaneous recitation is very good occasionally, and for a very brief time, to test the attention of the class or for enlivenment, but used anything more than occasionally, seems to me very bad. Where simultaneous recitation is relied upon, those that need to study the most rely exclusively on the four or five of the brightest in the class, who invariably take the lead, and thus the end and aim of the recitation for the majority of the class have been lost."

Notes from the Commissioner's Last Report.

COLLEGES.—Of 323 colleges 289 report libraries, the aggregate number of volumes being 1,930,124; 159 report increase in libraries during the year of 85,092 volumes. The aggregate amount of corporate property reported by 170 colleges was $44,813,876; the aggregate endowments

reported by 157 colleges was $20,232,511; the value of grounds, buildings, and apparatus reported by 256 colleges was $29,178,080; the income of productive funds reported by 153 colleges was $1,876,873; the aagregate receipts for the year reported by 195 colleges (exclusive of that from productive funds) was $2,718,506; and the amount of scholarship funds reported by 49 colleges was $1,641,743.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.—Hopeful progress is manifest in the growth of special schools for the training of teachers for our public schools. Statistics are given of 113 normal schools and normal departments having 877 instructors and 16,620 students.

Eleven of these were established or organized in 1873, the most notable being the Massachusetts State Normal Art School, "intended as a training school for qualifying teachers and masters of industrial drawing, its specific aim at present being to prepare teachers for the industrial drawing schools of the State, who shall also be able to direct and superintend the instruction in this branch in the public schools."

KINDERGARTEN.—All the reports received from teachers who have taken pupils from the Kindergarten mention the superiority of these children over others in their capacity for learning, owing to the careful cultivation of all their capabilities, particularly their observing faculties. They show great quickness of mental perception and advance rapidly in the studies they undertake. The foundations of mathematical science are so well laid in the occupations and lessons of the Kindergarten that geometry will not be to them the dry, unmeaning study it is to most, but becomes an old, familiar friend when met with in the text-book.

SCHOOLS OF SCIENCE.—The number of schools (including special scientific departments of universities,) embraced in the Commissioner's tables, is 68, reporting 650 professors and instructors; 6,396 students in regular courses; 533 in special courses; 98 in post graduate courses; 1,426 in preparatory courses; 193,000 volumes in libraries, about 14,000 volumes having been added to them during the year. The total number of degrees conferred in 1873 was 437. 39 of these colleges are on the foundation of the national land grant, and reported 399 professors and instructors, and 4,911 students, of whom 3,414 were in regular course, 392 in special course, 67 in post-graduate courses, and 1,038 in preparatory courses. The number of degrees conferred in 1873 was 266.

TOO MANY COLLEGES.—The absence of several important items in the reports of many of the institutions leads the Commissioner to remark: Quite a large number of the colleges, it would seem, do not reach the standard. They assume the name, having as yet insufficient facilities for doing the work of a college.

When it is considered what is required in the way of professors and division of professorial work, endowments, buildings, libraries, apparatus, museums, &c., to equip a college to meet the demands of modern education and modern culture, the question is seriously suggested whether there is not a great waste both of money and effort in the struggle to keep life in a large number of these institutions. It cannot be doubted that it would be far better for the interests of higher education if many of them were to convert themselves into thorough-paced preparatory schools. The multitude of such institutions creates competition and rivalry for mere numbers of students and degrades instead of advancing the scholastic standard.

What is needed is concentration and combination of means and energies. A small number of vigorous colleges in a State, even in germ, would be of more value than a dozen or a score of feeble ones. They would not only raise the standard and character of collegiate training, but would also exercise a powerful influence for good on every grade of instruction, even to the lowest.

In most of the leading colleges, however, there is constant and well-directed effort to raise the standard of admission

to the college curriculum as well as the standard for the several degrees conferred. The scope of studies is being widened; more prominence than ever before is given to English and modern studies; special and post-graduate courses have already been established in several of the larger institutions, while in others initiatory steps have been taken for instituting similar courses; new and improved buildings are taking the places of the old structures, and the means of illustration, in the way of museums and cabinets of natural history and of art and archæology, are rapidly accumulating.

SCHOOLS OF MEDICINE.—The number of schools of medicine and surgery (including dental survery) summarized in the reports is 81, with 1,100 instructors and 7,748 students. They are classed as follows: 59 "Regular" with 780 instructors and 6,491 students; 3 "Eclectic" with 26 instructors and 310 students; 8 "Homœopathic" with 136 instructors and 499 students; 11 "Dental" with 448 students. There are also 13 Schools of Pharmacy reporting 48 instructors and 933 students. The number of graduates in medicine was 2,612, including 175 in dental surgery. The number of graduates in pharmacy was 174.

SCHOOLS OF THEOLOGY.—Of the 110 theological schools and theological departments of colleges in the United States 20 are Presbyterian, 16 Roman Catholic, 16 Baptist, 18 Lutheran and Reformed, 10 Protestant Episcopal, 10 Methodist, 8 Congregational, 2 Christian, 2 United Brethren, 2 Universalist, 2 Unsectarian, and one each Unitarian, Moravian, New Jerusalem, and Union Evangelical.

The number of instructors in all classes of educational institutions in 1870, according to the census, was 221,042; number of pupils, 7,209,938. According to the Commissioner's report there were, in 1873, in all classes of institutions about which information was obtained, 246,932 teachers and 8,723,945 pupils.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

FIRST LESSONS IN NUMBERS—ELEMENTARY ARITHMETIC—MENTAL ARITHMETIC—COMMON SCHOOL ARITHMETIC. By JOHN H. FRENCH, LL. D. New York: Harper & Bros.

Although the science of arithmetic probably does not admit of much additional development, the presentation of the subject does admit of simplification and more philosophical arrangement than has been usual. Dr. French, we think, has made commendable progress in this direction. In the first book we would especially notice and commend the relegation of all formulas and methods to an appendix, where they can be consulted by the teacher, as he may need. Such things are evidently out of place among the examples or problems presented to the pupil. The "Manual of Methods and Suggestions" will be found very useful to the ordinary teacher, and may be profitably consulted by all teacheas. In the Elementary and Common School arithmetics we find some decided excellencies, namely, in the order in which subjects are presented; in the way in which principles and rules are introduced, and especially in the treatment of Notation, Multiplication, Division and Compound Numbers, and the not always happily presented subject of Integers and Decimals. Here the author is peculiarly felicitous, treating decimals in connection with integers, for the simple reason that they are governed by the same principle and ought not to be separated. In the preparation of problems, transactions and computations in all the arts and avocations of life, are judiciously introduced, thus giving variety and affording to the intelligent teacher means for much incidental instruction. The author confines himself to what is really practical and useful, discarding mere curiosities and obsolete applications of numbers, and useless tables. A Manual of Methods is prefixed to the Common School arithmetic. We are inclined to think that trial will show these arithmetics to be among the very best ever published in this country.

SHAW'S SPECIMENS OF AMERICAN LITERATURE, AND LITERARY READER. By Prof. BENJ. MARTIN, DD., L. H. D., University of New York City. Published by Shelden & Co., New York.

This is a companion volume to Shaw's Specimens of English Literature, issued by the same house, and like that comes out in a new and improved edition, and much enlarged withal. Running one's eye over the table of contents and index of writers quoted, an impression is at once gained of the extent and richness of a literature which has come into existence principally within the last fifty years. No other national corps of authors, especially none ranging through a period no more extended, will be found, we think, to exhibit so much individuality and variety. The volume opens with Roger Williams, Cotton Matter, and Jonathan Edwards, and closes with John Hay, Joaquin Miller and Chandler Harris. The book is an admirable "Literary Reader" for high school classes.

FIRST LESSONS IN PHYSIOLOGY, for use in Common Schools. By C. L. HOTZE, author of "First Lessons in Physics." St. Louis: Central Publishing Co. 190 pp., 12 mo.

Every one should know something about his own body and how to take care of it, and though not much can be taught a child or youth at school, yet some fundamental facts can be impressed upon him which will both serve as a basis for further knowledge and a guard against error and quackery. The brevity and conciseness of this little book commend it to attention, and the selection of matter and the way of presenting are both very happy. Another good feature is frequent reference to special sources of further information. See advertisement.

A GRAMMAR SCHOOL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. By J. J. ANDERSON, A. M., author of various Histories. New York: Clark & Maynard. 299 pp., 16 mo.

A very concise and clear narrative, graphic and apposite illustrations, frequent maps, both general and local; chronological recapitulations and summaries, review questions and interesting notes, make up a very complete apparatus for presenting and impressing an outline of the history of our country, as a part of school work. We should say it would just about meet the wants of a vast number of our common schools, and the completion of the first century of our national independence should give new interest to the study of our history at school and at home. We observe that Anderson's Histories are said to be used in a majority of our large cities, which attests their popularity and adaptation to the wants of schools.

OLD AND NEW is an attractive magazine, not merely to the general reader, but especially to lovers of art. Its critiques on painting and music are particularly noticeable. In the March number we find a continuation of very interesting article on "Art Education," and fine sketches of Hammatt Billings, the architect, and of Mariano Fortuny, a Spanish, and Georges Michel, a French Painter; also, the usual well considered Musical Review. This department is especially valuable to intelligent and progressive students of music. The other articles for the month are—"One Hundred Years Ago," which is of especial interest as the "Centennial" approaches. "The Way we Live Now," a continued story, by Anthony Trollope; "The Miller on the Wall," a poem; "Gen. Terry's Fort Fisher Expedition;" "The Class of '76," a story; "The Passage of the Au Sable," a remarkable incident well described in verse; and "A Contribution to the Conscience Fund," which with the "Examiner," the monthly notice of choice current literature, make up altogether a tempting bill of fare. "Old and New" is published by Lee & Shepard, Boston, at $4 a year, and began its eleventh volume with January.

SCRIBNER'S MAGAZINE for March is as fresh and attractive as ever. Major Powell's description of his famous voyage of discovery down the Colorado, begun in January, grows in interest as the narra-

tive goes on. It was almost literally a voyage through the center of the earth; the cliffs towered sometimes more than a mile above the heads of the voyagers, involving them in gloom, and hiding from their sight the dangers toward which they were hurried by the impetuous torrent of the unknown river. The Major tells his story so modestly—with so little of trumpet-blowing and flag-flying—that it takes the reader some time to discover that this is the record of one of the most daring and ramarkable feats ever performed by an explorer. It is worthy to rank among the tales of Arctic endurance and heroism. The narrative is set off and enlivened by some most unexpected and charming bits of description of the gentler and more beautiful phases of nature, which have the same effect upon the reader that the phenomena themselves must have had upon the travelers through these weird and awful scenes.

A part of the expedition at one point refused to go any further upon what seemed an insane journey—they turned aside and met a dreadful death in the wilderness. Only those who went on survive to tell the story. The story of "Seven Oaks" also increases in interest.

WE have a few more copies of the "Proceedings" of the Detroit meeting of the National Educational Association. No more valuable book for the price can a principal of a graded or high school, or any thoroughly wide-awake and progressive teacher find. It contains admirable papers on various important topics by many of the most distinguished American educators. The following table of contents clearly proves this:

Report on Intermediate Schools, by Prest. Geo. P. Hays.

The Profession of the Teacher, by Wm. R. Abbott.

Preparatory Schools for College and University Life, by President Noah Porter, of Yale College.

A National University, by Prest. White, of Cornell University.

Paper on the same, by Wm. T. Harris, LL. D., Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis.

System of Public Instruction in Ontario, by J. George Hodgins, LL. D., Deputy Superintendent.

The Building of a Brain, by E. H. Clarke, M. D.

Four Years in Vassar College, by Prof. James Orton.

Co-Education of the Sexes in Universities, by Prof. J. K. Hosmer.

The Elective System in Colleges, by Rev. A. P. Peabody, D. D.

The Plan of the University of Virginia, by Prof. C. S. Venable, LL. D.

A National University, by J. W. Hoyt, LL. D. Review of a paper read at Elmira, N. Y., by President Eliot.

Defense of Classical Studies, by James D. Butler, LL. D.

National Endowments for Schools for Scientific and Technical Training, by Prof. J. K. Patterson.

What Constitutes a Consistent Course of Study for Normal Schools, by Prof. John Ogden.

Training Schools in Connection with Normal Schools, by Prof. J. C. Greenough.

What must be the Special Work of Normal Schools to entitle them to be called Professional? Prof. Larkin Dunton.

Method and Manner, by Prof. Soldan.

Several Problems in Graded School Management, by Hon. E. E. White.

Language Lessons in Elementary Schools, by Miss H. A. Keeler.

Science in Common Schools, by Dr. J. W. Armstrong.

What shall we Attempt in Elementary Schools? Mrs. A. C. Martin.

The few remaining copies of the "Proceedings" we can furnish singly at the lowest wholesale price—$1.35 per volume. They can probably be obtained nowhere else singly for less than the ordinary price, $1.75. Our sole object is to give circulation to the book, thus at once aiding the Association and benefitting the educational cause.

WHEN Thales asked if the deeds of men were concealed from the Gods, he replied, "Not even their thoughts."

WISCONSIN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

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TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOLS.

[In the Tenth Biennial Illinois School Report, by Hon. Newton Bateman, which is just published, we find the following:]

AN ILLUSTRATION.

"To place in a clear light the indirect influence referred to, in at least one of its manifestations, we will take a familiar case. Here is a rural township divided into six districts, (the average number), and in each district there is and for years has been one ordinary common school. No one of these six schools is particularly different from or better than the others. In each there is the usual diversity of ages, attainments and conditions; the usual books and studies, and the multiplication of classes incident to the necessities of the case. For the law admits all the youth in each district between the ages of six and twenty-one years, and during part of the year, at least, nearly all are in attendance. Little fellows who have just touched the line of eligibility are there, for the first time, with their primers and spelling books, intent upon mastering the mysteries of the alphabet. There, too, are young men and misses, for the last time, having traversed again and again the most advanced ground of the scanty curriculum, yet hoping to gather up some additional crumbs of knowledge before saying good-bye to school. Between these extremes are all the gradations of age, aptitude and attainment—the dull and the bright, the fast and the slow, the gentle and the rough, the strong and the weak—all to be instructed and cared for, in innumerable ways, by the one teacher. He does the best he can. If he can find four or five near enough together in knowledge and capacity to be formed into a class in any one of the branches taught, he is glad to do it. And so of still smaller numbers, down to even two. But after exhausting all possibilities in this direction, he finds that the remaining number of individual *ones*, exceeds the whole number of his classes. To each of these individual pupils he must give such occasional and hurried assistance as he can. He works hard, but at a fearful disadvantage. Systematic teaching is out of the question—concentration of effort is impossible. He has but single minutes where he should have five, ten or fifteen—but seconds often, where he should have minutes. Instead of that smooth, quiet and sequential movement of school life and work which, reacting, produces mental tranquility and steadiness in the pupils, there is confusion, hurry, disorder, friction. No fixed time-table or schedule of school exercises is possible—no pupil knows just when he will be called upon to recite, or when he can have needful assistance. The order of work is never the same for two consecutive days unless by chance—cannot be. Individual pupils often go, in emergencies, a whole day or

more without being able to secure a moment's attention from the teacher, and in the meantime they may be at a standstill for lack of light upon some obscure point in the lesson, or a hint of the way out of some tangle, or over some obstacle. And when the favorable moment for explanation comes, the teacher may be called away just at the critical point where a few words more would make everything clear. Discontent, listlessness, loss of interest, indifference, inevitably ensue. The tone of the school is lowered; a sort of weary spiritlessness settles down upon it; duties are performed in a careless, mechanical way, and the hours drag heavily on. There is *nothing beyond*, no other school to go to, no outside incentive to effort, no fresh breeze from any quarter to stir the surface of the sluggish waters. In each of the six schools the state of affairs is substantially the same.

"Now let a good township high school, with fresh and advanced studies, superior teachers, improved methods, regular classes, progressive steps, and thorough and systematic instruction, be opened in that township, and what a transformation would be wrought in those sluggish schools. What an awakening and quickening breath would reanimate those tired and torpid boys and girls. There is something to work for now, an objective point to be gained, a prize to be reached. The high school becomes a topic of absorbing interest to all who expect to continue their studies, and their enthusiasm is communicated to all the rest. The new school, its teachers, classes, discipline and internal arrangements, are eagerly discussed, morning, noon and evening, and especially the conditions of admission, and the chances of success. Those who are to go to the high school begin at once, with zest and spirit, the work of preparation for the examinations that will crown or disappoint their hopes. Early and late they are at their books, which are suddenly invested with a new interest and importance. As the decisive day approaches, knots of boys and bevies of girls gather in all sorts of out-of-the-way places, to review the subjects on which they are to be examined—each in turn questioning the others thereon. Those six districts, lately so dull, glow with healthful excitement, and become very bee-hives of industry. Those who pass to the high school add to the interest already awakened, by their stirring accounts of their new duties and experiences. Meeting daily with the pupils of the lower schools, they answer innumerable questions, and seek to satisfy the tireless curiosity of their less fortunate companions. Strong bonds of friendship are thus established between the schools, and good feeling prevails on every hand. Such as failed at the first examination try again, and many who had expected their days of pupilage to end with the common school, are induced by the contagion of example, to reconsider their purpose, and press on towards the high school. Thus is the whole aspect of school affairs in the township changed for the better. The children are wide awake, the parents become interested, everybody catches more or less of the new inspiration,—and yet this is but the indirect influence of one township high school.

ANOTHER BENEFIT.

"Another most beneficent effect of this indirect influence, just hinted at, deserves more emphatic mention. I refer to the numbers who are led to continue and extend their course of study, who would otherwise have stopped with the rudiments. Holding as I do that the true wealth and worth of a community consists in its men, women and children, more than in its horses, cattle and swine; in morality, intelligence, industry and skill, more than in farms, merchandize, manufactures and railroads; in the subjective rather than the objective, and that even material interests are best promoted by and through the education of the people—whatever tends to improve the quality and quantity of that education, and to increase the number of its beneficiaries, is in my estimation a great public good. Such a force is a township high school. Its power to awaken in dormant minds a desire and resolution to go for-

ward in study and knowledge, is more effective than all the books and lecturers that could be sent into the township. There it stands, a tangible fact, doing its work, diffusing its spirit, challenging attention from day to day, under the eyes and at the very doors of the people. Ideas touching an advanced education that from lip or page merely, would seem distant, theoretical and vague, and so would fail to produce conviction and incite to action, are here crystalized into living forms as it were, and become potent in influence. But especially effective is the example of friends and associates. Boys whom no arguments can move, no persuasion entice into the fields beyond the rudiments, will often follow their companions thither, though perchance at first from no other motives than curiosity or sympathy. But once there a new love of learning springs up in the heart, new purposes are formed, strong aspirations are awakened, till they who had cared only for the "seven branches," and not much for them, became eagerest of all in the pursuit of knowledge. Dormant energies are stirred to activity, aptitudes and capacities are developed whose existence was unsuspected both by themselves and their friends, and in due time those aimless youth become men of culture and power—perchance of genius. The community is proud of them, the state is enriched by their gifts and talents, and their names are added to the world's roll of good and true men. They may remain on the farm or in the shop, engage in commerce or manufactures, or in any other pursuit—it matters not—to the end of life it will be true that whereas they were blind, now they see; whereas they were weak, now they are strong; whereas they once could do but few things, poorly, now they can do many things, well. This is no exaggeration. Every college and academy in the land is thus captivating and inspiring young men, by its silent, indirect influence, and recruiting the ranks of students and scholars from the mass whom nothing but the presence of such an institution would ever have moved from their indifference and apathy. And precisely this will be the effect, in greater or less degree, of every township high school that the farmers of Illinois may be wise enough to establish. The children in all the district schools will be spurred to greater diligence, while one and another, from this family and that, will hear and obey a silent summons to higher knowledge and greater usefulness.

DIRECT INFLUENCE, AND RESULTS.

"Turning from the indirect to the direct results of township high schools, one of the first and best to be noticed is the immediate relief afforded to the district schools. The high school pupils are of course drawn from the district schools of the township, and the attendance in the latter is reduced accordingly. This reduction will in many instances enable the people to discontinue one or more of the district schools, thereby materially diminishing the expense. In fact such will be the general effect, when the re-adjustment of districts consequent upon the establishment of the high school, is fully accomplished; so that the aggregate expense to the townships having high schools will not, in the end, be materially greater than it was before. But whether the number of lower schools is reduced or not, the withdrawal to the high school of all the more advanced scholars will at once diminish the number of classes and of unclassified pupils in the several district schools, and thus very greatly lessen the burdens of the respective teachers and improve the efficiency of their schools. The remaining pupils may to a great extent be formed into classes, securing in part at least, the benefits of the graded system.

THE CROWNING BENEFIT.

"But the chief and crowning benefit of a free township high school is that it brings the means of an advanced education to the very doors, as it were, of every farmer in the state. It obviates the expense and the risk of sending to different places those sons and daughters who hunger and thirst for what the common district school cannot give them. At home, the best and safest place on earth for our boys and

girls, under the watchful guardianship of parents and friends, surrounded by helpful and wholesome influences, they may quietly and happily pursue their studies, till fitted, by thoughtful habits and enlarged intelligence, either to take their places in the industrial walks of life, or to enter some still higher institution of learning, as inclination or circumstances may suggest.

"It is a common mistake that but comparatively few from the rural districts, or from the ranks of those in moderate or indigent circumstances, care to proceed beyond the meagre elements of knowledge supplied by the common schools. An examination of the catalogues of our colleges, schools of science and other like institutions, will reveal the fact that, even under the present most adverse circumstances, a large percentage of the students is drawn from those very sources; and the further fact that that percentage constitutes one of the *very best* elements in all respects, of the membership in the respective institutions.

"If the cultivated men and women now filling places of great usefulness and honor, who have reached them from the nethermost strata of the people, as to wealth and social advantages, were to-day eliminated from the working forces of the body politic, very astonishing gaps would be disclosed along the whole line; illustrious names would vanish from every department of human activity. Of all the unwritten stories of actual life which have come to my knowledge, none have more of the elements of courage and heroism than those that record the struggles of indigent young men and women to secure that which the children of the opulent so often despise, or are too indolent to attain. And these are they who know best how to appreciate and use the power that learning bestows. If there are "learned fools" in the world, not many of them are of those who, through the tribulations of poverty, have gained their academic honors. These men, as a rule, know what to do with their learning. If it is infinitely touching to note the painful sacrifices and unfaltering purpose of these young people in their long battles for an education, it is infinitely cheering, too, in that it demonstrates the irrepressible and inextinguishable longing of human souls for that life which is "more than meat." In this sense it sometimes seems as if a material poverty and destitution were blessings in disguise. Deprived of those those things which blind while they satisfy, which hide the stars of the upper firmament while ministering to the tastes of the lower nature, it seems given them to see with clearer vision, and to pursue with more tireless and eager steps those treasures that are spiritual and everlasting. "The *poor* heard *Him* gladly," and the gospel of education finds none so ready as they to hear its good tidings and accept its blessings.

"There is truth in the popular proverb that "public high schools are the people's colleges." They open doors that to the great majority would otherwise be closed and barred; they render it possible for the whole body of our youth to know *something* of the beginnings of *higher knowledge;* they afford an avenue through which even the poorest may pass on to the realization of cherished hopes; they help to break down the barriers that have too long kept the youth of the country schools at a disadvantage; they go far towards equalizing the benefits and privileges of the free school system; they are the logical outgrowth of the ideas that underlie the whole policy of free public education; they diffuse a healthful stimulus through all the schools of lower grade; they give to the state greatly increased numbers of better educated men, and are the occasion of the development of capacities and talents which had otherwise been lost to the arts and industries of mankind. They are, especially, a boon to the indigent, the bestowal of which is an honor to the state and no injustice to the more favored.

CHOOSE rather to have your children well instructed than rich, for the hopes of the learned are better than the riches of the ignorant.—*Epictetus.*

STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

BY A. H. WELD, RIVER FALLS.

1. THEIR HISTORY.

In 1865 the Legislature divided the swamp lands and swamp land funds into two equal parts. *One moiety* was set apart for drainage purposes, the *other* to constitute a Normal School fund, the income from which should be applied to establishing and maintaining Normal Schools. In 1866 the Board of Regents was incorporated, to whom was committed the care of the fund and the establishment and control of Normal Schools. The Board decided upon the policy of using the income of the fund in establishing several such schools in different parts of the State. During this year two locations were made: one in Platteville, the other in Whitewater. On Oct. 9th of the same year the first Normal School was opened in the old Academy building in Platteville, which with its grounds was a part of the donation made by the people of the village. It has since been enlarged, and is now a substantial and comely edifice, convenient and well arranged for school purposes. The school at Whitewater was opened on the 22d of April, 1868. The school at Oshkosh was opened Sept. 10th, 1871. The building at Oshkosh was completed in 1870, but for lack of funds at the disposal of the Board to pay the salaries of teachers it stood unoccupied about one year.

An evidence of the *local* appreciation of State Normal Schools it may be stated that no less than twenty cities and villages in the State have competed for their location, offering, respectively, liberal donations, varying from $25,000 to $40,000, and a site in most instances of 10 acres of land, valued from $1,000 to $10,000.

It is estimated that the cost of the building for the Fourth Normal School, located at River Falls, when completed, together with Furniture, Text-Books, Reference Library, Musical Instruments, Philosophical and Chemical Apparatus, exclusive of site and adornments of the grounds, will amount to $65,000—a sum considerably in excess of the cost of either of the other State Normal buildings with their equipments.

In providing a more spacious, commodious, and consequently more expensive building in this locality than in the places first selected, the Board have been influenced by their experience gained in the operation of schools already established, and by the popular demand for larger accommodations. These schools are full to overflowing, and the Board have already yielded to the necessity of enlarging the buildings in Platteville and Whitewater. It is believed that the Normal School at River Falls, so far removed from academic institutions, will ultimately command a larger attendance of students, especially in the intermediate department, than the schools which are in the vicinity of colleges and High Schools which offer desirable facilities for advanced education.

2. THE PURPOSE AND FUNCTIONS OF A NORMAL SCHOOL.

The organic law is as follows:

"State Normal Schools shall be established and continued at such places as the Board of Regents of Normal Schools may designate, upon sites selected by said Board, the exclusive purpose of which shall be the instruction and training of persons, both male and female, in the theory and art of teaching, and in all the various branches that pertain to a good common school education, also, to give instruction in Agriculture, Chemistry, in the Arts of Husbandry, the Mechanic arts, the fundamental laws of the United States and this State, and in what regards the rights and duties of citizens." An act was passed by the legislature at its late session, authorizing the Board to expand the course of instruction so as to embrace, if the Board shall so determine, the study of the Greek and a somewhat wider range of English branches, with a view of fitting students for the freshmen classes in the State University. Nor is this a diversion from the original purpose in establishing Normal Schools. Before persons are instructed *how* to teach they must thoroughly understand *what* they are called to teach. Whatever the

sphere they may elect to work in as teachers, their usefulness and efficiency depend greatly upon their culture and thoroughness. The Normal Schools, supported by a munificent fund, offer to persons who select teaching as their calling, opportunities free of tuition, for a thorough and extended course of instruction. This embraces more (as it ought), than he will probably ever be called upon to teach. But it gives him discipline, the habit of investigation, facility of expression, self-respect, and a conscious power which immeasurably enhance his value as a trainer of the youthful mind.

It is an erroneous view that the Normal School is designed to give instruction simply in the methods and theories of teaching. The Normal teachers aim to inculcate right methods by *using* such methods in their own class work. They *act out* more than they preach, the true principles of pedagogics. Still, however, lectures on the theory and art of teaching, hints and suggestions, are given throughout the normal course of four years.

3. LOCAL ADVANTAGES OF A STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

One of the most indispensable provisions of a Normal School is the training department. Persons preparing to teach ought to have the opportunity of observing the best methods of conducting recitations, and the *tactics*, (if I may so express it), of the class-room under the most skillful managers. The training department is designed to afford this opportunity of observing, and occasionally of practicing under an experienced eye. For convenience it is organized into two general divisions, called the *model* and the academic departments. The *first* includes children in primary studies, limited in number to the accommodations afforded by a single room, which is fitted and furnished expressly for the comfort and convenience of young pupils. The *academic* receives from the model department, on examination, such pupils as are qualified to enter upon a higher elementary course. To this course are admitted, students from without, who are prepared to join the regular classes. There is also an advanced course of study in the academic division, to which students are admitted who do not propose to follow the business of teaching, but wish to pursue a course of study in mathematics and natural sciences. Latin, French, German, Drawing and Vocal music are also taught in this department. The advanced students in this division, where their studies correspond, recite with the normal classes, and share alike with them in the privileges of library, cabinet and illustrative apparatus. The tuition in the primary division is 30 cents per week. In the intermediate and higher divisions the tuition varies from 40 to 80 cents per week. The training department is largely patronized by the villages and communities in the vicinity of the State Normal Schools already established. It is designed to furnish primary and academic instruction of the highest order at a very moderate expense.

Normal schools are a great benefit to society in communities where they exist, in fostering and preserving a high educational sentiment, introducing a class of educated gentlemen and ladies employed as teachers and managers of the schools, and in various ways increasing the population and wealth of the villages which have been so fortunate as to secure their location. Maintained by an ample fund, under the direction of a disinterested Board, entrusted to Faculties selected from the best class of teachers in our own State, and occasionally from candidates in other States, of unquestionable ability and qualifications, our State Normal Schools are among the most stable and popular educational institutions in the State.

4. EFFECT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS UPON THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

It is for these that Normal schools exist. Their aim is to provide for these well qualified teachers. It is the desire of the Board of Regents and the Faculties to bring the public schools into organic connection with the normal schools. The two systems are retroactive. The normal school gives and receives. The-

public school also gives and receives. They are mutually dependent and mutually beneficial. The higher the public school rises, the less elementary will be the work of the normal school. For the normal school must unavoidably receive its supplies and material mainly from and through the public schools. Let it not be forgotten, however, that our chief reliance for educating the masses of our population is on the public schools. These should be made as thorough and efficient in elementary education as the means at the command of districts will allow. Taxes for school purposes are indeed a heavy burden, especially when returns realized are only in services of teachers, well paid, but without merit or due qualification. If our Normal School shall subserve the one great purpose of elevating the common schools within the circle of its influence to a high standard of excellence and efficiency, its main design will be consummated. But while its forces are, as they must be, mainly spent in this line, it will incidentally be of great service to this and surrounding communities, in affording our youth opportunities for advanced education, and, as we now expect, a thorough preparation for business occupations, and for admission to the privileges of the State University, or to other colleges of equal rank.

ON IDIOMATIC TRANSLATION.

BY PROF. W. F. ALLEN, STATE UNIVERSITY.

When I went to school, a distinction was sometimes made in reciting our Latin lessons, between *translating* and *construing*. By construing was meant the process of taking up one word or one group of words at a time, and rendering it at once into English, so that the Latin and English words alternated in the pupils' work; thus—*cano*, I sing, *arma*, of arms, *virumque*, and the man, etc. This is undoubtedly a very useful method at a certain stage of progress; there is no better way of securing exactness of rendering, and making sure that every word and every construction is precisely understood, in their grammatical relations. It is properly speaking an exercise in the practical application of the rules of grammar and the meanings of words.

By translation was meant the process of reading the sentence off into English as a whole, without the intervention of the Latin words, which might be, and usually were, read in advance as an exercise in pronunciation and expression. So far as I remember, there was little material difference as in the result between construing and translating; both were about eqally bare and unidiomatic, only that in one the Latin words were interspersed, in the other not. This, however, was only a defect in execution; the system itself is a wise one, and illustrates an important principle.

The first thing to be done in acquiring any foreign language, is to make oneself master of the forms and the vocabulary. This is for the most part a matter of memory, and while this rudimentary process is going on, it is not only useless to pay attention to niceties of expression, but is likely to be absolutely prejudicial, by encouraging loose and innacurate rendering. How many girls have I seen, who had been studying Virgil in "Seminaries," and could translate glibly enough, looking out the meanings of words in the Dictionary, and then, with little or no attention to the terminations, putting the words together by guesswork, so as to "make sense." They could translate well enough, they told me, but couldn't parse, and knew nothing of the rules of grammar, a thing, as I told them, which was impossible; nobody can translate without being able to parse. These girls had made the mistake of undertaking to *translate*, without going through the indispensable preliminary of learning to construe.

With boys the opposite mistake is usually made. They are drilled so long and so minutely upon the details of grammar, and required to render so precisely and painfully word for word, that they never acquire the power of turning a Latin sentence into *English*. They turn the Latin *words* into English *words*, but there is no attempt at English *construction;* it

is Latin after all, although in an English dress. Still this is a less discouraging fault than the other. Those who have learned to construe correctly, but have never learned to translate, have at any rate a good foundation laid, upon which they can build at any time that they choose. But a person who fancies that he can transtate when he has never been through the preliminary training, is hopeless. The only sure course for such is to begin all over again, and learn from the foundation, just as if it were a wholly new study.

What I propose is to offer some rambling suggestions as to the practice of idionatic translation. Rambling suggestions will be probably as serviceable as any on this subject, because the application of every rule must at any rate be irregular and incidental in the highest degree. It is possible to group these suggestions under certain general heads, but the best assistance will be given by adding abundant characteristic examples; it is after all the habit of paying attention to idioms that needs to be acquired rather than any very formal and detailed rules.

In general there are two principles that should be insisted on in translating, which are in fact complementary to each other. First—and this is the Latin side of the rule—every word and every phrase should find its precise English equivalent. Second,—and this is its English side—the translation should be in good, idiomatic English, a test of which would be that no one would recognize it to be a translation; it should sound like an original composition. The two principles are complementary in this fact, very commonly overlooked by teachers: that the precise equivalent of a Latin expression is the English expression that conveys the same idea, not some clumsy collocation of words that represents merely its bare elements. Thus, for example, when Horace (Sat. i, 9,6) is trying to get rid of the bore, and asks him "num quid vis?" the literal rendering of the *words*, "do you wish anything?" makes no sense; the pupil must be aware that these were the words in which a Roman took his leave, and must translate in some such way as "bid you good morning." [See Plautus, Trinanomas, v. 192.]

At another time I will proceed to give illustrations and some general hints as to idiomatic translation.

The Practice of Teaching according to the Laws of Mental Science.

BY H. S. BAKER, RIVER FALLS.

ARITHMETIC.

There is such a variety in the lessons in arithmetic that one iron rule will not apply to every recitation. I shall merely offer a few suggestions in regard to conducting recitations in that branch.

Although I do not regard it desirable to try to strengthen the memory, by the study of arithmetic to any extent, yet teachers do not insist upon a thorough learning of the questions, in many cases. These should be recited often and critically. Many common school teachers never make any show of requiring this, or of explanations from the board, simply helping to work the examples. By enforcing well-worded explanations and analysis the pupil is disciplined for an encounter with the next problem.

To save time, let some work at the board in the beginning of the recitation while others are reciting the questions. Never allow a book to be used in explanation.

Let the members of the class analyze daily, without using the board, some of the examples, even where the numbers are too large to carry in the mind. The power of expression, and close, continued attention, is thereby cultivated. This is also good drill in geometry.

Insist on having the board-work put on in good order, and let the successive steps be near to their antecedents. Some pupils begin an example at the bottom of the board and work upward, and to the right and left alternately. No example thus worked out is easily followed by the class. Insist on the scholars using a pointer rather than holding it in his hand. When the listening class loses one step in the analysis, or in the work on

the board, the rest is lost upon them. Give the class a chance to criticise the work and analysis of each example.

In explaining what the class cannot, remember that the dullest can comprehend a process if you take but one step at a time, whether they remember it or not. So do not try to awe them with long words or rapid talking. That would confuse and blend the processes in the minds of those who are slow, and the labor is lost. Talk slowly. I think the process of deriving rules is often enforced in higher schools before the young mind can understand it.

Those who learn it as a declamation, but cannot see the dependence of the steps, are injured and disgusted with the topic. I have known scholars to learn the analysis in mental arithmetic and be able to apply it to a set of examples, when they could see no more sense in it than they would in the ten commandments in the same place. But to mature minds the analyses and demonstrations are useful, and should be very rigidly enforced and critically discussed.

Arithmetic, in this part of the State, is the hobby, and in fact nothing else receives much attention in common schools. This is wrong. But if it must be studied let it be used properly, not to strengthen the memory, but to culture the reasoning faculty and the power of saying just exactly what is meant, and no more.

HOW TO USE TEXT-BOOKS.

The text-book should be a book of texts —starting places for thought—a nucleus around which should gather illustration, comment, explanation, until the truth of the lesson becomes so attached and interwoven with the truth which previous study and experience have acquired; that it will not only be remembered by an effort of the memory, but cannot be forgotten because of its intimate association with previous knowledge. Fundamental statements in a compact form, as the text-book ought to present them, should be carefully committed to memory, but beyond this the memory should be left free and unburdened. A slip-shod way of committing what ought to be committed to memory will soon beget a habit of inefficient and slovenly study. But, memory giving ideas the prominence, rather than words, will render memorization easy and pleasant.

Several years ago I visited a school in the capacity of County Superintendent. As I entered, the teacher was conducting a recitation in geography. The class was not above the average of classes in a country school. I expected to hear the lesson parroted, but I was happily disappointed. Every question in the book gave rise to some remark, by way of illustration, some apt analogy, some pertinent question, leading the pupil to exercise his own mind, some reference to the well-known geography of the neighborhood exemplifying the lesson. The pupils were wide awake and deeply interested, and it was not long before I found myself intensely interested in the recitation, although the lesson was one of the simplest in the book. The whole secret lay in the use of the text-book; in teaching the science instead of teaching the words of the book. From that recitation, and from that country school-house I carried away a lesson which I have never forgotten.—PROF. S. H. CARPENTER, *in Univ. Press.*

UNIFORM EXAMINATIONS.

The annual report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction is at hand. It is undoubtedly the best report ever issued from that office. It is full of well considered matter in reference to educational needs. There is a matter of fact directness, and a say-what-you-believe earnestness about the recommendations that must leave a strong impression upon the reader. Every school officer and teacher should have a copy and read it.

One of the recommendations, in the form of a bill, met unexpected resistance in the Senate. It was a bill to make examinations uniform throughout the state. Each county superintendent was left to fix his standard as now, but the questions were to be supplied by the state, the

papers were to be marked under the direction of the state superintendent, and the work of the county superintendents was to be open to the inspection of the state superintendent. Some such measure is so much needed and so just, that it seems hard to find any objection to it. One superintendent reports that he has granted certificates to twice as many persons as there are schools in his district. Another does *not* report, what is a fact, that his friends can have blank certificates to fill out for their friends. In another county an applicant is duly examined and scores 80 per cent, and better, all around, then goes over the county line and cannot attain 30 per cent. In an adjoining county there are teachers holding certificates, one first grade, who have never been examined at all. As between the different counties, or between successive superintendents in the same county, there is not the semblance of regularity. Even a worthless superintendent might be held in check by proper supervision of the state department. We are surprised that the justice and propriety of the measure did not carry it unanimously.—*Superintendent* STEWART *in Waukesha Democrat.*

FREE EVENING SCHOOLS.

[We are indebted to Prof. J. D. Bond, of St. Paul, Minn., for a copy of the St. Paul *Daily Pioneer* of Feb. 26th, 1875, containing the following suggestive article:—EDS.]

Few citizens realize the excellent work which is being accomplished by the "Free Night School," the establishment of which was effected mostly by the energy and perseverance of Rev. C. M. Terry, pastor of Plymouth Church of this city. A representative of the *Pioneer* visited the school last evening, at the High school apartments on Jackson street, and he was much surprised and pleased to find such a large assembly of industrious students. There were about one hundred and thirty pupils present representing many nationalities. There were Germans, Scandinavians, Norwegians, French, Bohemians, Irish, English, Africans and Americans.

They vary in age from twelve to forty years, and are graded according to their knowledge and abilities. They have been divided into three sections, the lowest being those who know scarcely anything, the section class containing pupils who are possessed of but little education, and the higher grade consisting of scholars who, while having some knowledge, desire more.

Last evening in one room was found a very large class practicing writing under the excellent tuition of Prof. Bond, who had charge of the school in the absence of Mr. Sessions, the regular principal. The scholars were perfectly orderly, and paid the closest attention to their work. In another room Mr. Edward Bell was instructing about thirty pupils in reading. They had had some exercises in spelling, and their teacher was teaching them to read singly and in concert, requiring the closest attention to pronunciation and punctuation. It was very interesting to notice the manner in which the different nationalities accented the same word. The teacher insisted upon the purest English, and it was quite remarkable how quickly the pupils caught a word. A third class, under Mr. J. S. Parsons, were working problems of considerable difficulty on blackboards. It was impossible not to be impressed with the studious appearance of the class, and an enquiry of the teachers elicited the encouraging statement that the pupils were making very satisfactory progress, all carefully preparing their lessons before the school hour.

The school holds four sessions each week, the pupils supplying nearly all of the text-books they use. There are about one hundred and eighty names on the rolls, and an average attendance of one hundred and twenty-five.

The school is under the control of Mr. M. C. Sessions, as principal, who teaches penmanship, besides having a general oversight of all the details. Prof. Earthman teaches reading and spelling, two nights each week, Mr. E. Bell, one night, and Mr. Heritage one night. Mr. J. S. Parsons instructs the arithmetic classes

two nights, and in the absence of Rev. Mr. Terry, Prof. Fogg lectures on the history of the United States two nights.

The small expenses of the school have thus far been paid by the subscription of liberal gentlemen. It is proposed to continue the school until the first of April, and there will be no trouble in procuring the necessary funds to do so. The teachers all donate their services, with the exception of the Principal who receives a mere pittance for his arduous duties. All enter upon their work with the greatest zeal, and are entitled to the greatest credit for their work.

The success of this project of educating those who cannot take the advantage of the public day schools, is now demonstrated to be a much needed and practical measure, and as a large majority of the pupils are of the age which would make them eligible for admission to the schools of the city, it is hoped that the Board of Education will take the matter in hand, and adopt measures whereby the evening schools may be continued next fall, thus affording those who are forced to labor during the day, an opportunity to improve their minds and become valuable citizens. Certainly no member of the Board nor any citizen, will raise the last objection to having the school become the charge of the city, if they will but once visit it and see the earnest workers which are assembled.

DRAWING IN SCHOOLS.

The subject of drawing in schools merits more attention than has been heretofore accorded to it. Unfortunately, the general impression seems to be that it is merely an accomplishment to be mastered by a favored few, or by those specially gifted by nature with a talent for it. That it can be learned by the majority of pupils as easily as writing, will hardly be credited, and yet, after giving the matter a fair trial in a school of average ability, we found the number of those who could not draw well, as far as the subject had been pursued for a given time, was no greater than of those who could not *write* well after a much longer trial. Drawing aids in writing by training the eye and quickening the powers of observation. That the eye needs this can be proved by a simple expedient. Take any company of a half dozen or more, and ask them to give the measurement of various objects in the room, estimating distances wholly by the eye; the result will be truly surprising. *Boys* need just the education acquired by this study. That skilled labor commands the highest prices is patent, and in mechanical pursuits the trained hand and eye are of great value. The man who can illustrate his idea with his pencil, invariably rises in his occupation. The carpenter who draws well, becomes foreman; and the machinist, in many cases, the successful inventor. The farmer also with this aid can describe the insect which destroys his crops, or plot his ground.

If one of two men is describing to the other some parcel of land, block of buildings, or a given locality, how much more easily and effectively could he do this with a few strokes of the pencil than by talking several minutes?

Children have a great deal of ingenuity and power of combination, which in its crude state manifests itself in picturing wonderful ladies, impossible horses, &c. The delight with which they receive any hints which lead them to use this power in a more satisfactory manner, ought to convince the most skeptical of its utility.

The low estimate of its importance is in part due to the want of knowledge of its principles and practice; hence the attitude of many is that of opposition. Let its advantages become thoroughly appreciated, then we shall see our schools taking the position on this subject so much to be desired.—*Am. Jour. Education.*

MAP-DRAWING IN SCHOOLS.

In learning to draw maps some rule or diagram is quite necessary, and whether prepared by the teacher or presented in the text-book it should be carefully studied by the teacher, so that no hesitation shall be manifested in the presence of the class. A teacher who was placed in

charge of a class some grades higher than she had previously taught found herself compelled by the course to teach map-drawing. She was one of those who devote themselves with energy to the accomplishment of what is required. She never had taught map-drawing, perhaps never had studied it, but could not afford to fail, and after making the map to be drawn an object of special study until both the diagram and boundary-lines were quite familiar to her she began after school her practice on the blackboard. It is more difficult to draw a map on the blackboard than on paper, and still more difficult to draw on the board from memory than to copy from a book. Yet she had resolved to give the diagram on the morrow without book, and, if time would permit, also to draw the outlines of the country of which the class were required to draw a map. So with lead-pencil she drew faint guiding-lines both of the diagram and the outlines upon the board, and to prevent any erasure of her lines she hung a small outline map so that it would protect that part of the board upon which was her work. The next day, at the proper time, she removed the map, and in the presence of the class, who also worked on their slates with her, she executed an excellent map, giving diagram and boundaries with confidence and precision, such as generally can be obtained only from long practice and careful study. The next time she did not require the guide-lines in pencil, for she had studied diligently with the class, and, having the greater determination to succeed, had learned faster than any of her pupils. In a few weeks she could from memory draw upon the blackboard all the groups prescribed for the grade under her charge. If such guide-lines are used, it will be better to make them with ink, using a quill pen for the purpose, as the graphite of the pencil sometimes causes the chalk to slip over the board without leaving a mark. The pupils may be told by the teacher that special preparation has been made to draw a map on the board, and that part of the board must not be used until after the geography lesson has been given.—*Home and School.*

ADVICE TO YOUNG TEACHERS.

There, it strikes me that there is nothing "sensational" about that title; in fact, I am half inclined to believe that it is hardly *original* with me; I have a lurking suspicion that I have seen it before, somewhere. But I think it may stand; for, perhaps, several years of experience and observation, in regard to schools and teaching, justify me in attempting to give advice to those who are just beginning work in the school room. At any rate, I beg any such who may see this article to give its suggestions careful thought; and, after weighing them, if you conclude that you must reject them, they may put you on a train of thinking that will lead you to something better. I propose to put what I have to say at this time, in the form of four cautions.

1. *Do not pretend.*

When you go before your examiner, do not pretend to any more knowledge of the subjects of examination than you are conscious that you have; and, if you fail to answer some of the questions, do not waste the examiner's time nor excite his disgust by any stories about "having known," "being *rusty*," "being very much embarrassed," etc. These shallow excuses deceive no one of any sense; and, even if they should chance to be *true*, they will not help your case at all, and were better unspoken. Go calmly and quietly about your work, collect your senses, do your best, and then abide the result. When you go into the neighborhood where you are to teach, do not pretend to any dignity or importance that you do not really possess. Neither, on the other hand, assume an obsequious, over polite, apologetic manner. Be as good, as wise, as kind-hearted and polite as you really can be, and think no more about it.

When you begin your work do not pretend to any *dignity* in the school room that you do not actually have; pompous tones, frowning looks, stilted talk, will do you no good. Do not pretend to your pupils that you know anything that you do not know; the wisest men never hesitate to say "I don't know;" and the wisest are

often obliged to say so. The wisest teacher I ever had used to surprise me by the frequency with which he said, "I don't know;" but, unlike many persons, he never thought that he *knew* a subject, if his knowledge of it was not complete and exact, and so thoroughly his own at the moment that he could clearly state it in words. If you are obliged to say that you do not know anything that you can know, and *ought to know*, say so in all frankness, but at once set about remedying your deficiency. Do not pretend to any more love and interest for your pupils than you really feel. If you do not love them and feel an interest in them, you have no business to be there as their teacher, but, pretending a love and interest that are not real, will only make a bad matter worse.

In short, remember that children are not easily deceived for a long time; and that it is just as natural for morally healthy boys and girls to despise a *sham* as it is for a duck to love water.

2. *Do not be rash.*

When your pupils present any request or petition, however unimportant, be slow to grant or refuse; weigh the matter, carefully, in all its bearings; *take* all the time necessary to do this, and then make your decision so that it shall stay made. Pass no word of yours in the way of threat or promise, till you are fully satisfied both that your word *ought* to be so passed, and that it can be made *good when the time comes.* Make no statements in your teaching till you have satisfied yourself that they are perfectly correct; better say "don't know" a thousand times than make a statement that you have to unmake. In matters of discipline or punisment, you need to be particularly careful to take no rash step. There is danger at such times that passion will be aroused; and passion is always a kind of drunkenness. Woe to a ruler, anywhere, who has to take *back-steps*, or who refuses to take them when his step has been a false one; the last error in his case is worse than the first. It is always safe to follow Crockett's famous advice: "First be sure you're right, then go ahead."

3. *Do not work without a plan.*

Have a plan for your first day's work. Visit the school house before your term begins, and become familiar with it and with its surroundings. Then, go to school on the first morning with a matured plan for seating your school, and with work prepared to set every pupil something to do as soon as the school is opened. Do not wait till you have taken all the names; you can do that at your leisure, after you have given busy eyes and mischievous hands something else to do than to watch you, or to make trouble for you, as a result of their idleness. Have a little map of your school room so that, as soon as you get a pupil's name, you can write it in the proper place on your map, and then by a little study from time to time associate face and name, until either shall recall the other, at once.

As soon as possible make a plan, or programme, of the daily exercises of the school, and post in some conspicuous place, or write it in large letters on the black-board. Give each recitation its place, and fix exactly the time for each exercise to begin and to end. The advantages of such a course are very numerous and very weighty, but I will not take time to give them here. The programme, however, will be worse than nothing, unless you *strictly adhere to it.* Plan for yourself each day's work; that is, in the quiet of your room, go over each lesson, no matter how elementary it may be; prepare yourself for the difficulties that are likely to arise, and determine fully just how you will present every point that you undertake to teach. Early in the term, plan your term's work in each particular study. Determine what topics to take up, how much time to give to each, how many pages of the text-book to undertake, and what to omit, if you deem it best to omit any. To be sure, you may find it necessary to modify this plan as the term progresses; but the very fact that you have a plan will aid you in making wise modifications. In the school room, as everywhere else, it is well to follow the advice of the great apostle: "Let everything be done decently and in order."

4. *Do not expect perfection.*

Morally and intellectually children are like the rest of us—a mixture of strength and weakness, of good and evil. Meet them and dwell with them, every day fully recognizing this truth. Their impulses are generally good, and their wish is to succeed in what they undertake. But an evil spirit of mischief sometimes takes possession of them; their patience has a limit as yours has; indolence has its charms for them, as it has for all of us, and they like to follow "their own sweet will as well as anybody." But does it follow from this that we should be satisfied with meager attainments, with lazy practices, or with mischievous exhibitions? Not at all. Set the standard high, in every respect; there is little danger of setting it *too high.* But, if they fail to reach it, do not become morose, morbid, or disheartened. So that there is progress in the right direction, keep up heart; commend the good; persistently and firmly check the evil; arouse the indolent, and patiently seek to reclaim the wayward. Who realizes his full ideal in anything? And, if he should do so, with what kind of an ideal must he have started?—E. C. HEWETT, *in Ind. Sch. Jour.*

WOMEN AS SCHOOL OFFICERS.—In this state now, as in several other states, women are eligible to school offices. For years the larger portion of our teachers have been women. Last year, by Superintendent Searing's recent report, first grade certificates were issued to 99 males and 50 females; second grade to 240 males and 268 females; while 4,981 held third grade against 1,920 males. These figures show that talent of a practical kind is not wanting among women. Thousands who have been teachers are now directly interested in the education of their own families; and we believe, that as a rule, they take a more lively interest in their work of education than do the male parents of a community.

We believe that if women are put on school boards, the business of school inspection will be better managed and more faithfully attended to than at present. A little outside employment will be to them a grateful change; and they will bring to this much neglected duty of a school board, an enthusiasm, strengthened by a natural fitness for the work, and a large experience in the management of children.

We hope at the fall election to see many of the best women in this county named to fill these offices.—*Superintendent* STEWART, *in Waukesha Democrat.*

EDUCATION OUTSIDE OF THE SCHOOLS.

Is there no good education but that which is literary? Is the ignorance with which it has become proverbial to associate vice and crime, a simple ignorance of books? Is a literary education the only sufficient preparation for the duties of life? Is mere illiteracy dangerous to the state? and is mere literary acquisition, an assurance of civic virtue? Is there no good education possible to those who can not, or do not, attend the schools? Is it an invariable rule that those who are most successful in school studies become the most useful and enterprising citizens? Are there not many good citizens, who, as pupils, did not distinguish themselves? Is there salutary and adequate education outside of the schools?

These are questions suggested while listening recently to a discussion upon "illiteracy," and it is the intent of this paper to offer a suggestion or two going to sustain, rather negatively perhaps, the affirmative of the last one, though it may be apparent heresy and treason for a teacher to do so.

It is assumed that whatever fixes the mind upon a noble aim, develops a worthy purpose, imparts courage and strength to surmount difficulties, and supplies the fortitude to persevere till success is gained, is essential education. Whether this influence proceeds from religious consecration, from parental inspiration and training, from any worthy affection, from a scholastic course, from pursuing any practical vocation, or from whatever sufficient source, the main result is identical, to-wit, mental and moral growth and power.

Many a pupil attending school year in and year out, under the unqualified notion that "going to school" is all in all, utterly fails of growth and training, and issues from school at length the merest cipher. While many a boy and many a girl whom some household exigency has sent from school, or kept from school, has found in the discharge of other duties, as efficient discipline as the schools could have given, and perhaps more so.

It is time a sharp admonition were sounded in the ears of many parents that mere attending school, or mere respectable standing at school, does not assure mental acuteness, or moral character, or general ability. The schoolboy who spends the hours outside of school either in blank idleness, or in contracting the nameless and numberless vices that characterize the crowd of loafers at the village grocery or saloon, will surely find his work at school more than canceled by these dissipating laxities, and his parents will never cease to wonder that school does him little good.

Our American idea of "schooling" doubtless tends to an extreme. From a conviction that school training can do much to strengthen and mould the character of the future citizen, careless parents go to the extreme of thinking it should and can do everything. But it remains that pupils spend three times as many hours out of school as in, and every teacher knows that if the main influence of the eighteen hours be dissipating, or otherwise adverse, the work of the six stands little chance against the prevailing current.

It remains that the average parent has far more to do, on the whole, in educating the child, than the teacher. The pupil will be, in the end, what parental care or parental neglect has made him. Happy for him whose careful home training is enforced and hightened by his school work!

But if his school education must, at first and continually, undo the outside work, it will not be strange if the greater and more constant pressure prevails, in many cases at least.—H. F., *in National Teacher.*

WHAT WOMEN CAN DO.

Not long since a young lady, Miss Gilbert by name, became interested in the subject of prison reform. Inquiry and investigation convinced her that a vast amount of good might be accomplished in this field of labor, and she accordingly entered upon it with the zeal and fervor of an enthusiast. Though a comparatively brief period has elapsed since then, she has already, through her own individual efforts, established libraries for prisoners in the following penal institutions: Cook County Jail, Ill.; St Louis County Jail, Mo.; Springfield County Jail, Ill.; Chicago House of Detention, and New York Tombs. She has, moreover procured situations on farms for three hundred and fifty released prisoners. She is now making the preliminary efforts for establishing libraries in the New York House of Detention, Ludlow Street Jail, and the Blackwell's Island Penitentiary. It has been well observed, the prisoners languish in our jails and penitentiaries through days, weeks, months, and years of solitude, when their minds are ripe to receive good impressions; and yet the golden opportunity is wasted; the best and safest road to reach the conscience is unused. With nothing to occupy his mind, the prisoner is left to brood over his real or imaginary wrongs, and little good ever comes of it; but rather a growth of bad resolutions and bad purposes. Sheriffs and other officials rarely bother themselves about the mental happiness or moral improvement of those consigned by law to their charge. Whatever is done to improve their condition must be mainly done through individual efforts—just such efforts as are giving the young lady alluded to a world-wide reputation.

Her labor and success afford a striking commentary upon those women who, ambitious to achieve some good in the world, complain that no opportunities are open to them, and sometimes lament that they were not born men so that no field should be closed to them. While all women may not be Florence Nightin-

gales, or achieve the philanthropic success of a Miss Dix, all women who desire to do so can lend a helping hand, as Miss Gilbert has done, in elevating the condition of those around us. There is not a lady teacher who does not, in and out of school, enjoy the rarest opportunities for elevating the human race, for moulding human character, and leaving her impress upon her day and generation. The time has passed when women should feel that they must remain in the back ground because they are women. It is now their privilege to come to the front, and actively participate in the various philanthropic movements which are being undertaken from day to day.—*American Educational Monthly.*

STATE UNIFORMITY OF TEXT-BOOKS.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction of the state of Virginia, in his last report, enters a strong, not to say passionate, protest against the doctrine expressed by the above caption. He claims that such uniformity tends to "despotism, corruption, and intellectual death."

He proves conclusively that uniformity of text-books should be limited to cities, districts and townships, according to the organization. He shows that the central power controls subordinates and extinguishes thought; that state uniformity is inimical to the improvement of teachers; that teachers and trustees are better judges of the merits of a school-book than state officers can be; that better bargains can be made by those more directly interested than civil officers would make, and that a variety of text-books is needed to suit the different circumstances, tastes, and prejudices of different localities.

The weak points in the argument seem to be the stress placed on the idea of encouraging the home production of school books, and the reflections on publishers, as if they were banded together for state uniformity, whereas respectable publishers, as a rule, are opposed to the doctrine, and desire, above all things, an open market.

In relation to home production of text-books, the report finally says: "I know of competent teachers now who wish to prepare text-books but cannot get them published because of the existing difficulty of getting additional books admitted into the state, even on trial. And so almost the entire intellectual progeny of our 5,000 Virginia teachers is strangled even before birth. The end of such a policy must be intellectual barrenness."

Why should this be the result? Valuable productions are always in demand with the leading publishers. Is it because his book cannot be used in Virginia that a talented Virginian should refrain from the glory and profits of authorship? The localization of talent is narrowing in its tendencies. As well might one prefer the "original poetry" of his county paper to the songs of such foreigners as Shakespeare, Byron and Moore, as bewail the fact that text-books are urged upon him which had the misfortune to be manufactured outside his own state. Indeed, there are too many text-books published. In looking at the book-case of an educational friend, which contained eighty-seven arithmetics, we sincerely regretted that some of that "intellectual progeny" had not suffered ante-natal strangulation.

We sincerely hope that the able report of the superintendent will have the effect of bringing about the repeal of the present law of state uniformity; but we hope, too, that the eminent gentleman will rise above the thought of manufacturing books for a section of the country. Everything of a partisan or sectarian tinge has been carefully excluded by judicious publishers from their recent ventures. If the text give no offence—*that* is sufficient. There is, in all truth, enough in the realm of pure science and pure art to fill all books that need be printed. The debatable ground of politics and theology is not for our public free school.—*National Teachers' Monthly.*

CONSTANT success shows us but one side of the world; for as it surrounds us with friends who tell us only our merits, so it silences those enemies from whom alone we can learn our defects.—*Colton.*

ON STATE CERTIFICATES.

BY A. F. NORTH, PEWAUKEE.

I noticed a newspaper rumor during the winter that an attempt was being made to have a diploma of the University made an equivalent to a State certificate, and have endeavored to evolve from my *internal consciousness who* would be demanding this, and *why* it was demanded; but not being a German philosopher, I have failed, at least to satisfy myself.

I assumed that the demand was made by the prospective graduates, and probably on the ground of the time and expense involved in attending the State examination. But I was obliged to give this theory up, as they are already on the spot and could attend without any great inconvenience. I then thought of the faculty—that this privilege over other colleges might be an inducement for students to prefer the University; but as the University classes are already full, this theory fell to the ground.

I then assumed that it was mutual on the part of faculty and graduates—they deeming that the withholding of this privilege from the University, (the greater) when conferred upon the Normal schools (the less) was at least apparently invidious, if not positively disrespectful to them. I foresaw that if this grant were made to the University, every college in the State would on the same grounds demand the same privilege, and the high-schools would follow suit and that we would soon have such a host enjoying this *benefit of clergy* that so far as examinations are concerned both State and County examiners would enjoy a complete sinecure.

Now I have thought of a plan, and I am sure I shall receive the thanks of the University, Normal Schools and Colleges for submitting it. It is this: let every member of the university, normal schools or colleges who wishes to graduate as a teacher, be required to attend a State examination to be held at the capital, at a given time and have the State refund to each successful candidate his full traveling expenses.

There are many obvious advantages that would accrue to the State from this. A generous rivalry would be generated among our institutions of learning—in a better direction than boating, or declaiming or base-ball. The public would have a means of testing the work of each school. An *esprit du corps* would be developed from the commingling of the representatives of all the educational departments. And should boating, or base-ball or cricket or horsemanship or declaiming or any other physical accomplishment be deemed a valuable auxiliary to our future teachers, where can better facilities be found for their display than in and around the beautiful capital of Wisconsin?

I hope this matter will not be allowed to drop here, but that the columns of the JOURNAL will be open to its discussion and that it will perhaps find a place in the programme of the next State Teachers' Association to be held at Eau Claire—which is in the northern part of this State.

OUR SCHOOLS.

The doors of ten thousand American school-houses are again closed to be opened not again till summer shades shall be spread over the gay green earth, and hundreds of thousands of children are again let loose, even as from prison houses, to leap, skip and play to the music of their own merry voices. These facts furnish us food for reflection, and open up to us a wide field of investigation.

And, wherefore? Wherefore do we make this vast outlay of money for a certain purpose? And why do we make so little inquiry into the way and manner in which the same is spent? Wherefore is so much precious time consumed with so little known about the results? Why are parents so careless and so indifferent about matters of such vital importance?

To a certain extent the saying that, "What costs us nothing is worth nothing," is literally true, and too true it is in

regard to public schools. Hence it is that thousands upon thousands of dollars are wasted annually in this country in the attempt to force upon an almost unwilling community one of the greatest boons vouchsafed by our republican institutions to the children of each rising generation.

It is not our purpose to go into details and point out the next to wanton waste of the public funds in the conduct of our public schools. But it will be conceded by all that the waste is enormous when compared with the results for good.

But the money we spend is not all. Both health and life are often sacrificed in our public schools. Too often doth the pupil emerge from the school-room enfeebled and enervated both in body and intellect. Too often are they the victims of disease through the carelessness of parents in constructing school-houses which cramp, confine or "elongate" the body. Too often do they confine them in the foul atmosphere of heated rooms, and thus sow the seeds of death where life alone should dwell.

On the whole we wonder not that children long for the "last day of school"—long to be let loose from the prison houses in which for weary weeks, months and even years, in which they are too often confined.

This subject demands more thought—more consideration—more study—more reflection. While our free public schools are the pride and boast of this nation, the fact is still patent to even the common observer, that they are far—very far from being what they might be—far from being what they ought to be. And, the subject should be agitated continually until a great reform is inaugurated, pursued and perfected. Who doubts it? Who, then, will act? Who will take the lead in a reform so much needed?—*River Falls Journal.*

CAN YOU READ?—Can you read? is a question answered in the affirmative by all grades of intelligence, from the schoolboy who has just stumbled through his First Reader to the triumphant graduate who, diploma in hand, turns his back upon further acquisition of knowledge as well as upon college-walls, from the self-important free-school ma'am to the honest old expounder of scripture, who yet admitted that he was no "biblical" scholar. Read! Why, we can all read; yet point us out a good reader. How many of your acquaintance? They are not reckoned by the score in most neighborhoods, cultivated though the locality be, and the search extended to pulpit, rostrum, and academic hall. The first step to excellence in any art is to form some conception at the outset of the undertaking to be performed, and observers have said that effort is always wonderfully proportioned to the height of the standard which the aspirant erects for himself as the acme of his ambition.—*Home and School.*

COMPOSITION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

All true power in writing is in the idea, not in the style.—*Webster.*

The thoughts of a child are like bright-hued birds, flitting too soon for the song; or like a running brook, wasting its power in flowing. Catch the bird if you would hear its song, dam the brook if you would use its power. The puzzle is how to do one without killing, or the other without stagnation. To evolve new thoughts, to arrange the disjointed parts so as to produce uniform, symmetrical wholes, were a task far more difficult.

Composing is not always easy to do, still less is it easy to teach. To secure the same degree of success in this branch requires more labor and pains-taking than in any other, be it mathematics, science, or dead language. Generally a very questionable degree of success satisfies. This may result from the notion that composition is a gift. So it is a gift, but one which can be immeasurably improved by cultivation.

How to teach the art of composing is a serious question. Some teachers, having found themselves utterly unable to give a satisfactory answer, omit the study. Others, following the generally adopted plan, require of the pupil, at stated intervals, written exercises. Probably there

is little difference in results. Neither teach it. If one has an experience of having been taught in this way, he will at once agree that the plan is futile. Nothing so stagnates a child's thoughts as to require a composition. Be sure to call it by that name, and at the same time specify the number of lines it must contain. He has no interest in it beyond the question of escaping the dreaded infliction. He regards the requirement with perfect disgust, and probably at last, in desperation or total depravity, quotes an extract. If the teacher is discriminating he does not try it again; if not, he frequently resorts to this method of helping himself. Morally it is a pity; otherwise it does not matter much. Another favorite way of meeting the emergency is to "read up," and reproduce an article from the cyclopædia, with a little original spelling and a few *buts* and *ands* thrown in. It is undeniably difficult to know just what to say, and just how to say it, on a subject in which one has not the slightest interest, and about which one knows next to nothing.

Any method which seeks merely to secure accuracy in execution and elegance in style, must fail. Accuracy and elegance are secondary considerations, and will be taught with much greater ease when made to occupy their natural place. The ancients excluded invention from their system of rhetoric on the ground that gathering the material was not building. That, doubtless, is very learned, but it lacks common sense. To build without the material were impossible, equally so to say anything without anything to say. Style is a dead thing to a child, but wake him up with something to tell, and almost instinctively his thought puts on a seemly garb of words. Composition teaching, to be effective, must be such a course of instruction as will systematically develop thinking power. This must be the *primary* object. Constant exercise in invention will, in time, secure practical skill in the art of composition.

The first step towards this end is to waken an interest in the subject. I am convinced we are in error when we require young writers, especially, to compose so seldom. We should hardly expect to keep up a very lively interest in any other subject if we met the class but once in five weeks. Why is this most difficult of all subjects? It is dreadful to write once in five weeks, but it might be delightful to write five times in one week. The subjects should, at first, lie in range of the child's observation so that what he sees may be the basis of what he knows.

One morning, in the fall, I brought into my class a bunch of oak leaves. On each leaf was a small gall nut. For several days the matter was under consideration, comparing, examining, and questioning. By carefully observing different nuts, they found the insect in its three stages of growth, and were, with very little help, able to reach correct conclusions. We never consult the cyclopædias, for the reason that it is so difficult to give their own forms to the thought when the expression is once fixed. When exercise hour came it found all the class eager to write all they knew about this queer little fly living in a ball. The following is one as it came in for correction. There are many inaccuracies in it. It is not at all perfect, but simple and natural, as a young girl ought to be:

THE OAK GALL-FLY.

In the summer, we often see a large number of little bugs or flies, with four wings, flying around under a kind of white oak tree.

These flies deposit eggs in little holes which they make in the middle veins of the leaves.

The leaf that has an egg in it, begins to swell at the point where the egg is deposited till, in a short time, it looks like a tiny nut with the burr on it. This is called a gall-nut, and is really a little worm's house. In some countries, the nut is used for a dye, and to make black ink.

The little worm, or larva, begins to eat the inside of its house, as soon as it is hatched, and when it has eaten enough, it moults, and changes into a pupa.

The pupa is nearly like the perfect insect, except that it has no wings. It eats nothing while in this state, and lies quietly till its wings have grown; then it moults again and eats its way out of the nut, the perfect insect.

The egg was laid in the late summer and this winter, when the leaves dropped off, the leaf that had a gall-nut on it, dropped down among the rest, and will keep warm till spring when the fly will eat its way out. The fly lays one brood of eggs in the spring, and one in the late summer, it dies soon after laying the last brood.

At house-cleaning time we had a quiz about the clothes-moth. This persistency was really amusing. I am sure it is safe to say they left no carpet unturned. When they had found out something to tell, they told it, each in her individual way. This is the pretty conceit of one of them:

THE CLOTHES MOTH.

Some people make a great fuss over the little millers which we often see flying around the lamp in the spring and summer. This little insect is very harmless. Why! it could not bite any one, for it lives on honey that it sips from flowers with a little tube that is kept coiled between its lips. But it lays eggs in woolen clothes and carpets, from which a little worm which we call larva, is hatched.

The larva is what does the mischief. It has a head with a pair of teeth that work like scissors, two feathery feelers, three fore legs and some prolegs that are not of so much consequence.

The larva is very industrious for as soon as it is hatched it goes immediately to work to make itself some clothes. It seems to be a natural tailor and does not have to learn the trade but cuts and fits its own coat with as much ingenuity as any one practiced in the art. I must tell you the way it does it.

If the larva lives in a carpet it takes its scissors and cuts along the surface shearing off the fuzz which it sticks together with a glue secreted in its mouth. This is its coat and, of course, is the color of the cloth from which it is made. It makes it so it opens at the top and bottom, and when it walks, eats, or works, it reaches out its head and three legs. But if you touch it, it will wrap itself all up again. Sometimes the larva gets too big for its clothes; but it soon remedies it by setting a piece in its coat and making it larger. The piece set in is sometimes a different color; but the larva is quite satisfied with it as long as its coat does not fit so tight.

When it gets all it wants to eat and wear and does all the mischief it feels able to it sews up the ends of its coat for the winter and prepares itself for flying forth a moth or miller in the spring, to bother folks when sewing or reading by lamplight, and to lay those troublesome eggs.

The moth seems to have quite a pleasing history in spite of its being so disagreeable itself.

The writing is usually done in the recitation hour. Frequently, however, the exercise is re-written, particular attention being given to neatness of execution. In the matter of style proper, there are few corrections. It seems wiser to cultivate the individuality and frankness of expression rather than finished diction. The first order of the recitation is to listen to the correction of all the faults noted in the previous writing.

How much time it must take! Yes, I said at the beginning that it took more than any other study. Usually I look over sixty exercises a week, these not including the more formal compositions written twice per quarter.

During the autumn themes of absorbing interest were found among natural objects. Having become somewhat familiar with the narration and description by parts of such subjects, I have led them a step farther. The subjects now assigned are to be described by attributes. The class would hardly be able to tell you what they were doing, only having fun writing about "How to do your hair," "How to make pumpkin pies," "Colds," and the like. The subjects are puerile, but do they not fit the writers? Who wants to see boys and girls in dress coats and court trains, aping grown folks? Here is one that came in to-day. I think a good deal of it. It is full of a quiet humor, just like the girl herself. Its hits are local, and those you will miss, but the class were appreciative:

THE MODERN SCHOLAR.

I can tell you more about the modern scholar, by comparing him with what I have heard of scholars of olden times.

I think the modern scholar studies harder, goes to the dictionary oftener, and quotes from the cyclopædia more extensively.

He does not complain, near as much, of the cold coming through the crack of the windows, and under the doors. He behaves better, I should think, by the way my father talks about being feruled when a boy. Then, they had to beat the knowledge in, and now we get it, or try to at least, without the beating.

The teachers are better now. They probably never had a music teacher in school, or any medical lectures to go to once a week. I presume they never went to such large school buildings as are used now days, but I don't know as that makes any difference about knowing anything. We will say that it does though.

The modern scholar studies more out of school, never runs away from class, is always on time, has his thoughts on the lessons constantly, but I hope the scholar of olden times wrote better compositions than some of the modern ones do, for if they did not, I pity those that had to hear them, as I do those who will hear this.

I have not attempted any fancy sketch, but only to explain for the help of any who may need what in my experience is true, "that the main requisite for teaching composition is to have something one feels interested to say."—JULIA A. KING, *in Michigan Teacher.*

THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE.

No matter what branch a scholar intends ultimately to pursue, language is the one with which he should commence. For high proficiency in science or in mathematics, there can be no better preparation than thorough training in language. With *Alpha* language, the student is enabled to grasp the deductions of those who preceded him in study and investigation; with *Omega* language he must instruct those who come after him. It is all "words, words, words,"—and not in the contemptuous sense in which Hamlet used the expression. Language is the measure, if not the very parent of thought.

There is one point in the cultivation of language that is too commonly neglected in the primary school, namely, the proper use of capitals and punctuation marks. Involving, as this art does, some of the nicest distinctions that the student has to make, yet there are certain general rules which the youngest child can learn to apply. There is no good reason why the child should not capitalize and punctuate ordinary writing as correctly and mechanically as he answers questions in the multiplication table. The habit of so doing should be formed as soon as he is able to wield a pencil or a pen. To this end we sketch the following graded course in capitals and punctuation:

FIRST READER PUPILS.—To learn the names of all marks occurring in their book, and to write their own names with capital initials.

SECOND READER PUPILS.—To learn the practical use, in sentences dictated to them, of capitals in first words, proper names, the words I and O, and of the period and interrogation point.

THIRD READER PUPILS.—The use of the period in abbreviations, of the comma in a series and after a name directly addressed, and of the exclamation point.

FOURTH READER PUPILS.—The use of a colon before a formal enumeration, of hyphen, and of quotation marks.

FIFTH READER PUPILS.—At this point the pupils have a text-book of grammar in which they will learn the remaining and more critical uses of the marks of punctuation and the further places in which capital letters are employed.

We do not mean the theory of capitals and punctuation, but the actual and habitual use of them, without rule or explanation, till pupils reach the study of technical grammar. We do not mean that children shall be made to say: "At a comma stop and count one;" but that from the teacher's dictation, the children shall write sentences on their slates with proper capitals and punctuation.—*National Teachers' Monthly.*

THE LITTLE TORN PRIMER.

Millie ran into the dining-room and threw her books down on the dining-table.

"I knew all my lessons to-day," she said, "and I want my dinner; and oh! *did* you have blackberry pie?

But what I am going to tell is not about Millie or blackberry pie, but about the books after Millie and her mamma had gone out of the room and left them to themselves.

"Millie is a very clever little girl," said the Grammar, "and talks very well. I take great credit to myself for teaching her to speak so correctly."

"Yes," said the Arithmetic, "she *is* bright, and can't be beat in Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division. Really bright children always understand *my* rules; I make them so clear and plain."

"She should be very much obliged to us," joined in the Geography, "for without us she could not be clever at all. For instance, see how much *I* tell her. I describe all countries, including her own; all bodies of water, all mountains, the different kinds of people—thousands of things. In fact *I* think the information *I* impart" (most books use big words) "the most interesting and valuable she obtains."

"Pshaw!" sneered the History. "You're alone in that opinion. Where does she learn all the particulars about different countries, including her own, as you say? Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, discovered America in the year 1492. He set sail with three small ——'"

"Oh, *do* stop that," interrupted the other books; "we've heard that until we are sick of it."

"Sometimes I wish he had never set sail," added the Geography.

"Where does she learn about the great battles—the lives of the kings, queens and emperors?" continued the History, waving its cover triumphantly; "about the illustrious Father of his country, George Washington, who never ——"

"Don't believe it!" interrupted the books.

"And if *he* never did, History does," said the Arithmetic—"many a one. It is only *figures* that *never* lie."

"From what does our Millie gain knowledge" — here spoke the *Natural* History—"of beasts and birds and fish? All things that walk, or fly, or creep, or swim, or stop still and only breathe? The wonderful habits of the insects, the traits of the massive elephant, and the capers of the mischievous monkey?"

"My friends"—here joined a tiny voice for the first time, causing the books to stand up on their edges and look over at the corner of the room where lay the little torn Primer, from which it proceeded—"my friends, I know you all help to make Millie wise and learned; but of what use would be all you can tell if she could not read it? You would be nothing without me!"

"You!" cried the others, in a scornful voice.

"Yes, me," answered the little torn Primer. "*I* taught her her letters. Without knowing them, what good would *any* book be to her?"

"How tiresome small books are," said the History.

"I guess I'll take a nap," yawned the Geography. And so the conversation ended.—*St. Nicholas for February.*

OBEDIENCE.—Something more than a mere external compliance with a rule or a command is needed to constitute obedience. In other words, not only the act itself must be the one required, but the motive must be right. If I am led to do what my father requires by mere dint of coaxing, or by the expectation of cakes, or promised indulgence of any kind, if it is a bargain in which I give so much compliance for so much per contra of self gratification, the compliance rendered is not an act of obedience. A great deal of what passes for obedience, in families and schools, is mere barter. Strip the matter of all glosses and disguises, and the naked truth remains, that the children are hired to do what the parent or teacher wants to have done. They do not obey in any legitimate and wholesome use of the word. The parent and teacher use a motive adequate to secure the outward act, but they do not secure obedience.

Obedience is doing a thing because another, having competent authority, has enjoined it. The motive necessary to constitute any act an act of obedience, is a reference to the will and authority of another. I must learn to obey my father because he is my father, and as such has the right to command me.—*In the School Room.*

THE most desirable "order" that can be conferred is the "order of the Bath."

EMPLOYMENT is nature's physician.

WHAT GRAMMAR DOES NOT TEACH.—Grammar indicates, only in a limited way, the received usage; there are many idiomatic expressions concerning which it is no help. It does not explain the value of words, nor their proper use, and adds little to our vocabulary, though an abundance of words is indispensable to correct speaking and writing. It teaches neither pronunciation nor accent, nor the orthography of the variable parts of words, nor their diverse meanings, nor the difference of signification between words improperly called synonyms, nor the propriety of figurative language, nor any of those delicacies of expression which constitute the genius of a language, and characterize a clear, elegant, and correct style. So grammarians, who devote their lives to the rules of language, are scarcely famous for their style. I do not know of one who has ever distinguished himself as an orator or writer. On the contrary, the greatest writers, such as Corneille, Pascal, Moliere, La Fontaine, and others, owe nothing to grammar; it did not exist in their time. The same is true of Homer, Thucydides, Virgil, Cicero, Dante, Petrarch, Milton, and Shakespeare. Grammar, then, is not the art of speaking and writing correctly, and still less is it the art of reading, by which we ought to commence the study of language. "I should be glad," said Locke, "if I could be shown the language that could be learned by the rules of grammar." "A century of theory," said Lemare, "will not advance us a step in the knowledge of language." "It is the grossest mistake," said Condillac, "to commence with rules."—CLAUDE MARCEL, *in Popular Science Monthly for February.*

"LADIES" AND "GENTLEMEN."—"Lady," and its corresponding "gentleman," may, because of this adjective force which inheres in them, appropriately be used as predicates, provided they stand alone. But for the same reason it is utterly inappropriate to use them as predicates, or in any other form, *with an adjective attached.* The rule is not optional, but one which good sense and cultivated usage have combined to fix with iron strictness. The highest breeding, we know, tends always to approach the utmost simplicity, both in manner and in language, and prefers such wholesome, downright terms as *man, woman, girl,* to to any affected substitute. Severe as it may seem, any violation of the rule we have hinted at casts a shade of suspicion on the education and antecedents of the culprit. When our neighbor at the hotel table describes a guest opposite as "a very intelligent gentleman," or "a charming young lady," he does no more it is true than is common enough among numberless worthy and amiable people; but he is wrong, for all that. The taste of a sensitive hearer easily takes offense at such slight matter, and the sin against style is apt to create a prejudice in regard to more essential things.—*Scribner for February.*

STUDY WITHOUT A MASTER.—One of the worst evils of the university system is, that not a step can be taken without a master. In place of exercising the pupils in the imitation of good models, which would in part dispense with his aid, they are pushed in a false direction, where they seek their way painfully, and cannot advance without help; while the professor discourages them by corrections which are renewed without ceasing.

Self-guidance is the first condition of a reasonable, improvable being. Children should learn at school how to study alone —to discover for themselves what they wish to know. In giving them no initiation, in denying them their free-will, we prepare them to resign themselves to the passive part imposed upon the nation by governments that take the initiative in all measures of social interest. We thus form subjects for a tyrant, not citizens of a republic.—CLAUDE MARCEL, *in Popular Science Monthly for February.*

READING ALOUD IN THE FAMILY.—Books and periodicals should be angels in every household. They are urns to bring us the golden fruit of thought and experience from other minds and other

lands. As the fruits of the trees of the earth's soil are most enjoyed around the family board, so should those that grow upon mental and moral boughs be gathered around it by the entire household. No home exercise could be more appropriate and pleasing than for one member to read aloud for the benefit of all. If parents would introduce this exercise into their families, they would soon see the levity and giddiness that make up the conversation of too many circles giving way to refinement and dignity.—*Dane Co. School Monitor.*

WHAT THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT IS DOING FOR EDUCATION.—The national government has already set aside for educational purposes one hundred and forty millions (140,000,000) of acres of public land; and the question of devoting to education the whole proceeds of the public lands still undisposed of is discussed. In the last Congress, the Committee on Education and Labor in the House of Representatives reported favorably a bill for this purpose, and, after a careful debate and consideration, it passed that body and was sent to the Senate. It has established a Bureau of Education as a permanent part of the goverment, with a Commissioner of Education at its head. His annual report is one of the most interesting, instructive, valuable, and important documents that issues from the government press. Every legislator and every school officer in the United States should study its contents and heed its facts.

Answers to Questions in Mathematical Geography.

(See page 108, March No.)

1. The earth is supposed (conceded) to have been at one time in a plastic condition and the flattening at the poles is a necessary result of the revolution of such a body on its axis. An experiment made with soft putty on a revolving spindle will illustrate.

2. What the exact influence upon the earth's climate would be, consequent on its axis of revolution being parallel to the plane of its orbit, might be difficult to determine, but it would be very great, as the sun at one season of the year would shine perpendicularly on the north pole illuminating the whole northern hemisphere for 24 consecutive hours and leaving the southern hemisphere in darkness —six months hence reversing this order.

3. The inclination of the earth's axis influences the climate by giving variations of the seasons. These would be a-wanting were its axis at right angles to the plans of its orbit.

4. If the inclination were 30° the frigid zones would be each 30° and the torrid zone 60°, and in this is the answer to the seventh question; the polar circles answering to the degree of inclination as "Teacher" will very well see if he will put a penholder through an apple for its axis and make it revolve around an imaginary sun. If he makes the inclination 30° the sun's rays will be seen at one period of the earth's revolution to illuminate 30° beyond the one pole leaving all within 30° of the other pole in darkness; and the reverse at another period; and so of any other degree of inclination.

5. The ascertaining the length of any degree of longitude is a question of spherical trigonometry. There is a simple and beautiful geometrical demonstration of its length at 45° north or south latitude.

6. If "Teacher" take his apple or a pumpkin as suggested above and carefully observe it in its course round the imaginary sun, he will acquire a more satisfactory idea of these matters than he can derive from any short answer given in the JOURNAL.—A. F. N., *Pewaukee.*

PROBLEM AND SOLUTION.

EDS. JOURNAL: I inclose the solution of the general problem of which Clairant's celebrated problem of the Couriers is a special case. In one of its special forms it answers a mathematical query which found a place in the JOURNAL several years ago.

I inclose no diagram; for should you deem the solution worth publishing, the reader can easily supply one.

Yours truly, ALEX. S. CHRISTIE.

STOCKBRIDGE, Wis., Feb. 24, 1875.

If AB be a straight line perpendicular to the parallel straight lines AD, BW; and if from any point M in the latter a point move with uniform velocity toward W: where will it be overtaken by a pursuing point which, starting simultaneously from A, moves with r times the velocity and always directly toward the fugitive point?

Assume AD as an axis of abscissas, AB an axis of ordinates.

Let C be the position of the fugitive point at any instant after its departure from M, P the position of the pursuing point at the same instant. Denote the constants AB, BM by h and k, the co-ordinates of P by x and y, MC by v, the arc AP by z, and the straight line PC by t.

$$z=rv....(1),\ t^2=(v+k-x)^2+(h-y)^2\ ..(2)$$

Differentiating (2), $dt=\dfrac{v+k-x}{t}$

$$(dv-dx)-\frac{h-y}{t}\,dy\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots(3)$$

$$(v+k-x)\frac{dy}{dx}=h-y\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots(4)$$

from (4) $\dfrac{dx^2}{dy^2+dx^2}=\dfrac{dx^2}{dz^2}=$

$$\frac{(v+k-x)^2}{(h-y)^2+(v+k-x)^2}=\frac{(v+k-x)^2}{t^2}$$

$$\text{or } \frac{dx}{dz}=\frac{v+k-x}{t}\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots(5)$$

Combining (5) and (4) $\dfrac{h-y}{t}=\dfrac{dy}{dx}\ldots(6)$

Substituting these values in (3), we have, $dt=\dfrac{dx}{dz}(dv-dx)-\dfrac{dy}{dz}dy\ldots..(7)$

Differentiating (1) $dv=\dfrac{dz}{r}$.

Substituting in (7) and reducing,

$$dt=\frac{dx}{r}-\frac{dx^2+dy^2}{dz}=\frac{dx}{r}-dz\ldots..(8)$$

Integrating (8), $t=\sqrt{h^2+k^2}+\dfrac{x}{r}-rv\,(9)$

when $t=o$, $x=v+k$, and we have,

$$v=\frac{r\sqrt{h^2+k^2}+k}{r^2-1}\text{ and }z=\frac{r(\sqrt{h^2+k^2}+k)}{r^2-1},$$

the values of v and z in terms of r and constants.

If m and n be the velocity of the pursuing and fugitive points, respectively, these formulæ become $v=\dfrac{mn\sqrt{h^2+k^2}+n^2k}{m^2-n^2}$

$$\text{and } z=\frac{m^2\sqrt{h^2+k^2}+mnk}{m^2-n^2}\qquad(a)$$

If in formulæ (a) $h=o$, they reduce to

$v=\dfrac{nk}{m-n}$ and $z=\dfrac{mk}{m-n}$ (b), the formulæ of Clairant's Problem of the Couriers.

When $k=o$, formulæ (a) reduce to

$$v=\frac{mnh}{m^2-n^2}\text{ and }z=\frac{m^2h}{m^2-n^2}\quad(c).$$

If in formulæ (c) we substitute 600 for h, and 2 for $\dfrac{m}{n}$, we have the answer to a problem which appeared in the JOURNAL some two years ago relative to the flight of an eagle and pheasant.

ACQUISITIONS OF TERRITORY.

(See page 108, March No., at the end of Questions.)

I send a brief sketch of transfers of territory now belonging to the United States, made since 1763.

At the close of the French and Indian war France yielded up all her claims to territory on the mainland* in North America, ceding all east of the Mississippi to England, and all west, to Spain. Spain gave up Florida to England in exchange for the city of Havana which England had captured during the preceding war.

At the close of the revolutionary war, 1783, the United States succeeded to the English claims south of the Great Lakes and east of the Mississippi, excepting Florida, which England had re-ceded to Spain.

In 1800, Spain, by secret treaty, restored to France the territory of Louisiana, comprising all north of Mexico, east of the

* Excepting the city of New Orleans.

Rocky Mountains and south of British America.

In 1803 the United States purchased this of France for $15,000,000.

In 1804 an exploring expedition under Lewis and Clark to the head waters of the Missouri was sent by the United States. This party explored also the valley of the Columbia, giving a claim to that territory to the United States.

In 1819 Florida was purchased from Spain for $5,000,000.

In 1845 Texas became a part of the United States by annexation.

In 1848 California was added to the United States as the result of the war with Mexico—$15,000,000.

In 1854 the Gadsden purchase, including Arizona, New Mexico, &c.

In 1867 Alaska, bought of Russia for $7,000,000.—A. F. N., *Pewaukee.*

ANSWERS TO PROBLEMS.—See page 105, March No. of JOURNAL:

Received for liquors sold		$102.97
Liquors received from predecessor.	$57.54	
Liquors purchased	59.91	
	117.45	
Less liquors returned to successor.	31.37	
		$86.08
Making profit on sales		$16.89

AGENT DR. TO TOWN.

To profit on sales	$16.89	
To liquors received	57.54	
To cash received	32.17	
		$106.60

CR.

By liquors returned	$31.37	
By salary	25.00	
By balance due	50.23	
		$106.60

The question of the money in the right and left hands is quite a simple algebraic question in adfected quadratics. The following is a formula for an arithmetical solution of such questions:

(1) Square half of known No. (6)	9
(2) Add to this the given product	112
	121
(3) Extract square root of this sum	11
(4) From this subtract half known number	3
The remainder is the number sought	8

A. F. N., *Pewaukee, March* 15.

ANOTHER ANSWER.—(Application to problem omitted.)—Take one-half the given number, square it, add this square to the given product, extract the square root of the sum, and from this root subtract one-half the given number, and the result will be the number required.

J. S. MCINTYRE.

WHITEWATER, March 17.

PROBLEM IN INTEREST.—The problem below was in the "Query Box" months ago and we believe not answered. Now comes an answer:

What sum of money at the same per cent. per annum, compound interest, would double itself in the same number of years?

In computing compound interest, add 1 to the rate per cent. per annum converted into a decimal, and multiply the principal constantly by this sum. This gives a series in geometrical progression of which the last term is the sum of the principal and interest for the number of years corresponding to the number of terms. And if the principal be multiplied by the power of this constant multiplier, or ratio, corresponding to the number of years, the result will be the same. For a fraction of a year, multiply the sum of the principal and the accrued interest for the complete years by 1, plus the decimal part of the ratio multiplied by the fraction.

Now, by a few trials we find that the answer to the proposed question lies between 8 and 9; that is to say, the principal, the rate per cent. and the time, are, each of them 8, and a fraction.

Put x equal to the fraction; and then, as the principal at compound interest doubles itself in the time,

$$\left(1+\frac{8+x}{100}\right)^8\left(1+\frac{x(8+x)}{100}\right)=2.$$

Converted into Logarithms,

$$\text{Log.}\left(1+\frac{8+x}{100}\right)8+$$

$$\text{Log.}\left(1+\frac{x(8+x)}{100}\right)=\text{Log. }2.$$

By approximation,

$$\text{Log.}\left(1+\frac{8+x}{100}\right)=0.035602.$$

The natural number corresponding to which is 1.084931. Take away 1 and multiply by 100, and we have the answer, $8.4931.

VERIFICATION.

8.4931	Log. 0.929066
eighth power of 1.084931	Log. 0.283216
1 + (.084931 + .491)	Log. 0.017819
2) 16.9862	Log. 1.230101
8.4931	

WM. CRUIKSHANK.

AMENDMENTS OF THE SCHOOL LAWS.

The following amendments of the School Code, together with some new enactments are given here for the information of our readers:

CHAPTER 339.

AN ACT to amend section 19 of the School Code.

Section 1. Section 19 of the School Code is hereby amended so as to read as follows: Section 19: The inhabitants of any school district or of any joint school district qualified by law to vote at a school district meeting when assembled at the first and at each annual meeting in their district or at any adjournment of such annual meeting in their district, shall have power:

First, [The *First*, *Second*, *Third*, *and Fourth* sub-sections remain unchanged.]

Fifth. To vote such a tax on the taxable property of the district, as the meet ing shall deem sufficient to purchase or lease a suitable site for a school house; to build here or purchase a school house, and to keep in repair, and furnish the same with the necessary fuel and appendages: provided, that no district containing a population of less than two hundred and fifty inhabitants, shall have power to levy and collect a tax for building, hiring or purchasing a school house of more than six hundred dollars in any one year, unless the supervisors of the town, in which such schools are to be situated, shall certify in writing that, in their opinion, a larger sum should be raised, and shall specify such sum, in which case an amount not exceeding the sum specified may be raised; provided further, that no district containing a population of less than one thousand inhabitants shall have power to raise and collect in any one year, for the purposes above specified, more than one thousand dollars unless the supervisors shall certify as above set forth.

Sixth. To vote a tax on the taxable property of the district, of such sum as the meeting shall deem proper for the payment of teachers' wages in the district: *provided* that no district containing a population of less than two hundred and fifty inhabitants shall have power to levy and collect a tax for school purposes other than for the purposes prescribed in the fifth subdivison of this section, in such district of more than five hundred dollars in any one year. And *provided* further, that in case any district shall not at its annual meeting or at a special meeting held subsequent to the annual meeting and prior to the third Monday in November, vote a tax sufficient to maintain a school in said district the ensuing year for the term of five months, then the district board shall have power, and it shall be their duty to estimate and determine the sum necessary to be raised to maintain such school, and the district clerk shall certify to the town clerk the amount thus determined upon, who shall assess the same as other district taxes are assessed. And *provided* further, that in all school districts having an average attendance at school for the year of fifteen scholars or less, not more than three hundred and fifty dollars shall be raised in any one year for teachers' wages; in all school districts having an average attendance of not more than thirty nor less than fifteen scholars, not more than four hundred and fifty dollars shall be raised in any one year for teachers' wages. And in all school districts having an average attendance of not more than forty nor less than thirty scholars, not more than five hundred and fifty dollars shall be raised in any one year for teachers' wages. If, when a district [board] shall have failed to vote a tax for school purposes, any district board [*who] shall wilfully refuse or neglect to estimate and determine a sum sufficient to maintain a school for five months, as aforesaid, each member of the board thus refusing or neglecting, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and shall be liable to a penalty of not less than fifty and not more than one hundred dollars or to imprisonment in the county jail not less than one month nor more than three months. And when any district board shall have estimated and determined the sum necessary to maintain a school for five months, the ensuing year, any district clerk who shall willfully refuse or neglect to certify such sum to the town clerk in time to have the same embodied in the assessment roll for that year, shall be deemed guilty of misdemeanor, and shall be liable to a penalty of not more than one hundred dollars, nor less than fifty dollars. (The 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th and 14th subsections also remain unchanged.)

Section 2. The foregoing section shall not be construed to authorize or require the district board of any school district to estimate and determine the amount necessary to maintain a school in their district where a special provision is made by law for the support of a public school or schools in such district.

Section 3. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage and publication.

* The words [board] and [who] are inserted in the law by mistake.

CHAPTER 97.

AN ACT to amend section 46 of the School Code.

Section 1. Section 46 of the Wisconsin School Code is hereby amended by adding to the end of said section as follows: But any meeting of the district board held within the limits of the school district shall be considered legally constituted to do business, provided all the members are present and do each then and there consent to call it a meeting of the district board; and provided further that the board at any such meeting not previously called, shall not have power to purchase school apparatus or to transact such other business as is provided for in sections 47, 51 and 53 of said code; and it shall be the duty of the district clerk to record the transactions of such meetings, said records to be signed by the district clerk and the other members of the district board.

Section 2. This act shall take effect from and after its passage and publication.

CHAPTER 235.

AN ACT to amend chapter 281 of the laws of 1873, (which amended section 48 of the School Code.

Section 1. Section one, of chapter 281, of the laws of 1873, (amending section 48 of the School Code) is amended by adding to said section the following: And *provided* further, that a majority of the district board of any school district in this state shall have the right to permit the school house to be occupied by religious meetings, temperance meetings and any other meetings which in the judgment of the majority of the board will aid in disseminating intelligence and good morals among the inhabitants of the district.

Section 4. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after the passage and publication thereof.

CHAPTER 315.

AN ACT to provide for the purchase of text books.

Section 1. The qualified electors of any school district or of any town in which the township system of school government has been adopted may, by legal vote, and the board of aldermen or board of trustees of any city or incorporated village may, by ordinance or resolution, authorize the school board or boards of school directors of such district, town or incorporated city or village to purchase text books, for use in the public schools, said text books to be the property of the district, town, village or city so purchasing and to be loaned to pupils or otherwise furnished to them under such conditions and regulations as the aforesaid school authorities may prescribe.

Section 2. This act shall take effect and be in force on and after its passage and publication.

CHAPTER 96.

AN ACT to amend section 39, of chapter 151, of the general laws of 1869, entitled, "An act to codify the laws relating to normal schools, and to amend chapter 94, of the general laws of 1859, and chapter 116, of the general laws of 1866.

Section 1. Section 39, of chapter 151, of the general laws of 1869 entitled, "An act to codify the laws relating to normal schools and to amend chapter 94, of the general laws of 1859, and chapter 116, of the general laws of 1866," is hereby amended so as to read as follows: Section 39. Any person holding a diploma granted by the said board of regents of normal schools, certifying that the person holding the same is a graduate of a state normal school, and that he is qualified to teach a common school, shall, after the same has been countersigned by the superintendent of public instruction, as provided in section thirty-eight of this act, be deemed qualified, and such diploma shall be a certificate of qualification to teach in any common school of this state, and as such shall have the full force and effect of a first grade certificate until annulled by the superintendent of public instruction. And any person holding a certificate granted by the said board of regents, certifying that the person holding the same has completed the elementary course in a normal school, and that he is qualified to teach a common school, shall after the same has been countersigned by the superintendent of public instruction, as provided in section 38 of this act for countersigning diplomas granted by the said board of regents to persons graduating from a normal school be deemed qualified, and such certificate thus countersigned, shall be a certificate of qualification to teach in any common school of this state, and as such shall have full force and effect of a five years' state certificate.

Section 2. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage and publication.

CHAPTER 323.

AN ACT to authorize the establishment and aid in the maintainance of free high schools.

Section 1. Any town, incorporated village or city in this state, may establish and maintain not exceeding two free high schools whenever a majority of the legal voters voting upon that question at any

regular annual meeting thereof, or at any special meeting legally called and held for that purpose, shall determine so to do. The vote upon the question of establishing such high school or schools, shall be taken viva voce, or by ballot, as may be determined by the proper authorities for calling and conducting such annual meeting; and the manner of taking such vote shall be specified in the notices of such meeting whereat such vote is to be taken. Provided that whenever it is determined by the proper authorities to take such vote viva voce, the notice thereof shall specify the hour of the day at which such vote shall be taken. And provided further, that the electors of any town, or incorporated city or village, may, at the time appointed to take such vote viva voce, order and determine that such vote shall be taken by ballot, and when such order shall be thus made, the vote shall be taken by ballot. The vote upon the question of establishing high schools in towns, incorporated villages and cities shall be canvassed and determined in the same manner as now provided by law for canvassing and determining votes upon other questions relating to such municipalities and special meetings for consideration of this matter shall be called and held in the same manner as now provided by law for calling and holding special meetings for other purposes.

Section 2. Two or more adjoining towns may unite in establishing and maintaining a free high school; and the vote to thus unite shall be taken in each town separately, as hereinbefore provided. So long as any town shall decline to avail itself of the provisions of this act, any school district, or two or more adjoining districts, whether located wholly in one or in different towns, may establish and maintain a free high school, and the vote upon the establishment of such high school shall be taken in each district separately, at an annual or special meeting thereof, called and held in the manner now provided by law for calling and holding annual or special school district meetings. Provided, that no more than two such free high schools shall be established in any town. And provided further, that whenever any school district or districts included in towns uniting to establish and maintain a free high school, shall, by itself or themselves, establish and maintain a free high school in any town where no such school exists, such district shall be exempt from liability to taxation for the support of the high schools maintained by the several towns in which such school district or districts may be included.

Section 3. Towns, cities and villages shall receive in trust, and faithfully expend, donations and bequests made to aid in the maintenance of free high schools, and shall receive state aid in such cases, to the same extent and on the same conditions as if such schools had been established and maintained by taxation. Towns, cities and villages, school districts and counties, in case all the towns of any county unite in the establishment of one high school shall have power to levy and collect taxes for the establishment and maintenance of free high schools in the same manner as they are now by law authorized to levy and collect taxes for other purposes; to determine the length of time such free high schools shall be maintained during the year, and the amount that shall be expended in their establishment, equipment and management; to authorize the high school board hereinafter provided for, to locate the free high school permanently, or to provide that the terms of said high school be held alternately in such school districts embraced in the territory uniting in its support as it may designate; to authorize the said high school board to secure by purchase, lease, or otherwise, the necessary buildings, furniture, apparatus and text books, for the use of such schools; to hire and contract with properly qualified teachers; to apportion equitably, the aggregate amount of taxes voted to be raised for the support of such high school, and for that purpose to equalize the assessment of real and personal property made by the different town assessors, and determine the amount to be raised by each town, village, or school district uniting in the support of a free high school; and certify the same to the town or village clerk whose duty it is to assess the tax upon the taxable property therein.

Section 4. Whenever any town or towns, village, or village and town, or school district or districts shall determine to establish and maintain a free high school under the provisions of this act, the immediate supervision and management of such free high school shall be vested in a board known as the high school board, which shall be composed of three members chosen by a convention of the district officers of all the school districts composing the high school district; said convention and election to be held at such time and place as may be agreed upon by a majority of the said school officers, a notice of which meeting, signed by said majority, or by some person authorized by them so to do, shall be given to the clerk of each school district interested, whose duty it

shall be to notify the other members of the board of which he is a member. Provided, that when a single school district shall establish a high school in accordance with the provisions of this act the district board of said district shall constitute the high school board. The term of office of the members of the high school board shall be three years, except that at the first election of members of such board, they shall be elected respectively for one, two and three years. Vacancies occurring in the board shall be filled in the same manner as now provided by law for filling vacancies in school district boards. Provided, that when two or more towns unite to form a high school district, the county superintendent of the county in which the high school is located shall fill any vacancy that may have existed for more than ten days.

Section 5. Whenever any incorporated city, in which the management of its schools is committed to a board of education, shall determine to establish and maintain a free high school, under the provisions of this act, the immediate supervision and management of such high school shall be vested in such board of education, and such board shall have the same power and authority in relation to such high school as is vested in high school boards, created by this act, in other places.

Section 6. The high school board shall choose from their own number a president and secretary, but when all the members of the board shall be agreed thereto, the secretary chosen may be a person not a member of said board. When the high school district shall comprise more than a single school district, the treasurer of the high school board shall not be a member thereof, but the treasurer of the town wherein the high school is located shall be ex-officio the treasurer of the high school board.

Section 7. The high school boards created by this act are hereby invested with the same power and authority, in connection with the high schools herein authorized to be established, as are now possessed by district boards in connection with the public schools of the state, and the duties of such high school boards and the officers thereof, shall be the same as are now imposed by law upon said school district boards and the officers thereof, so far as the same are applicable, and they shall be subject to the same provisions of law for neglect or malfeasance, with such restrictions and additions as are provided for in this act.

Section 8. It shall be the duty of the high school boards, herein provided for, annually, on or before the second Monday in July, in all cases where two or more towns, or two or more school districts constitute the territory uniting in the support of a free high school, or where a single town or school district empowers them so to do, or where no other provision is made for that purpose, to hold a meeting and determine upon the amount necessary to be raised by tax for the support of such high school for the year; and if such school is maintained by portions of more than one town, to determine what proportion of such amount shall be raised in that part of such high school district situated in each town; and when such determination is made, the clerk of said high school board shall certify to the town clerks of the towns wherein such territory is situated, the amount to be raised in their several towns respectively, designating by school districts the taxable property upon which such amount is to be assessed; and the said town clerks shall assess, and the town treasurer shall collect the same in the same manner as school district taxes are now assessed and collected; and such taxes when collected, shall be paid upon demand to the treasurer of the high school board entitled to receive the same, and by him be paid out upon orders drawn by the secretary of the high school board, countersigned by the president thereof in pursuance of the vote of the said high school board and in no other manner.

Section 9. The high school boards shall have the custody and control of all the property belonging to such high school districts, shall make all needful rules and regulations for the management of high schools; determine, with the advice and consent of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the text-books, course of study and minimum standard of qualification for admission to the same, and establish rates of tuition for which non-residents of said high school district may be admitted thereto.

Section 10. The secretary of every high school board shall annually, at the time now required by law for town clerks to report to county superintendents of the county or district in which such high school is situated, upon blanks furnished by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for that purpose, such facts relating to such high school as said State Superintendent may require, which shall include the number of weeks such high school has been maintained, the whole amount expended for its support, the amount paid for instruction therein, the number of pupils attending the same, and also the average attendance. And the several county and city superintend-

ents of the state shall include such reports in their reports to the State Superintendent, in such form as he may require.

Section 11. Free high schools established and maintained under the provisions of this act shall be subject to the laws of the state relating to the common schools as far as applicable, except as herein provided. Any town may from year to year authorize its high school board to contract with, and pay the trustees of any academy or college, having a preparatory department, in said town, for the tuition of scholars within such town, in the studies contemplated in this act, under the standard of scholarship hereinbefore provided to be established; and the expenditure of any town for tuition in such academy or college, shall be subject to the same conditions, and shall entitle said town to the same aid from the state, as if said town had made such expenditure for a free high school. Any high school district may make use of any school house or other building within its boundaries for high school purposes, in whole or in part, adding thereto and equipping the same as may be necessary; Provided, such use be with the consent of the district board of said district.

Section 12. When any free high school shall have been established and maintained as provided by this act, for at least thirteen weeks in any one year, such high school district on complying with the conditions herein set forth, shall be entitled to receive from the state one-half the amount actually expended for instruction in said school, not, however, exceeding five hundred dollars in any one year, to any one school, or to the two schools of one town, incorporated village or city. Provided, however, That a high school district, of a larger population than three thousand, shall be entitled to receive at the rate of one hundred dollars additional for each additional three thousand of population. And provided further, That no high school district, town, incorporated village or city, shall be entitled to such aid unless the appropriation and expenditure for the high school or schools, on the part of such district, town, village or city, has been exclusive of the amounts required by law to be expended for common school purposes. Such state aid shall be paid from the State Treasury on and after the first day of December of such year.

Section 13. It shall be the duty of the Superintendent of Public Instruction carefully to examine the reports made to him annually by county and city superintendents, relating to high schools established and maintained under the provisions of this act, and the reports relative to the amount paid by towns to academies and colleges for tuition of pupils therein under the provisions of this act, and after fully satisfying himself with relation thereto, he shall make certificate to the Secretary of State showing what towns or districts are entitled to aid from the state under the provisions of this act, and the amount to which each such towns or districts are thus entitled; and it is hereby made the duty of the Secretary of State, upon the receipt of such certificate, to issue his warrant upon the State Treasurer, payable to the treasurer of the town or district entitled to receive the same for the sum thus certified as due and payable to each such town or district; and it shall be the further duty of the Secretary of State annually to include in the state tax apportioned to the several counties of the state, all amounts thus certified to him by the Superintendent of Public Instruction as due and payable under the provisions of this act, which sum shall be assessed and collected in the same manner as other state taxes are collected.

Section 14. There is hereby appropriated annually out of any money in the state treasury not otherwise appropriated, a sum sufficient to meet the expenditures authorized by this act. Provided that not to exceed twenty-five thousand dollars shall be drawn from the state treasury for the purposes of this act during any one year.

Section 15. The term, high school district, where used in this act shall be deemed and held to mean and include the territory united in the maintenance of a free high school under the provisions of this act.

Section 16. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage and publication.

CHAPTER 120

AN ACT to render women eligible to local school offices.

Section 1. Every woman of the age of twenty-one years and upward, residing in the district within which the duties of the office are to be performed, is hereby declared to be eligible, and may be elected to the following school offices, viz: The office of Director, Treasurer and Clerk of school districts; Director and Secretary of Town Boards under the township system of school government; member of a Board of Education in cities; and County Superintendent of Schools.

Section 2. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

Section 3. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage and publication.

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

Question. If a district is to be made a joint district by receiving territory from another district in another town, must it first be dissolved, and be reorganized as a new district? Some here so contend.

Answer. Not at all; the action sought is merely the alteration of two districts, whereby (they being in different towns) one of them becomes a joint district, and it is only necessary that the proper notices be given and that the two town boards concur in the action.

Q. The town board attached No. 6 to No. 8, and by the same order, a part also of joint district No. 5 without the concurrent action of the other town board, which you decide to be invalid. Query: Does this invalidate the whole order?

A. It does not; a part of an official act which is lawful and valid in itself, is not rendered invalid by another concurrent act which is unlawful, *unless* the first part so depends upon or is connected with the second part that they cannot be separated.

Q. If the property of an extinguished district is not disposed of by the town board, at the time the district is extinguished, can it be done afterwards?

A. There is no reason why it cannot; the duty of the town board in the matter is directory, and remains binding till it is discharged.

Q. Our district was formed in the spring; but had no school until after the second annual meeting, when it had 2 or 3 months; did it forfeit its right to existence?

A. It did not, as it did not fail for two whole years to have any school, and that is what the law means.

Q. Our district has failed to maintain a school two years as also has an adjoining joint district. Can a part of ours in its extinguishment, be attached to the other; and so keep it alive?

A. No provision is made for any such action. If done, however, and no exception is taken to it in two years more the revived district would have acquired a right to live on.

Q. Can a district which has voted 6 months winter school afterwards, at a special meeting, vote to have a summer school?

A. Certainly, if they feel able to have one.

Q. When does the financial year of a district begin?

A. It runs parallell with the school-year, from Sept. 1 to Aug. 31.

Q. If a district, with less than 250 inhabitants votes, at its annual meeting, the last Monday in August, to raise $600 for a school-house, can it vote $600 more at a special meeting on the 1st day of September, the first day of the new school year?

A. The district may *vote* as you say, but it cannot "levy and collect" more than $600 in the ensuing year, except as provided in section 19, sub-section fifth.

Q. Is a district authorized to borrow money to pay its teacher?

A. It is not—but only to build a school-house.

Q. Can the district employ a person to take care of the school-house, when the school is not in session, and put the key into his possession?

A. The board has the custody of the school-house and of the key of course, and if any person is employed as janitor it is by them and not by the district.

Q. Our district lost its school-house by fire and had no school during the last school year; is there any way in which it can get any State or county school money?

A. There is not. If it had 3 months school the State Superintendent would allow it State money; the town clerk has no authority to allow it county money.

DISTRICT OFFICERS.

Q. Must the clerk record the vote of a district meeting, if illegal?

A. He should record the transactions of the meeting, whatever he may think about their legality. He has no judicial power to determine that matter, and the record is evidence of the character of any action of the meeting in case its legality is legitimately called in question.

THE DISTRICT BOARD.

Q. Is the notice of a meeting of the board valid if only sent to the residence of the third member?

A. It is not necessary that the notice be conveyed to him in any particular manner, if only it be written, and sent or left 24 hours beforehand.

Q. Can the board forbid all other amusements in the school-room and allow "checkers"?

A. The board may make rules in regard to the whole matter of amusements about the school premises, but should of course be somewhat consistent and reasonable.

Q. Can two members of the board declare the office of the third member vacant, if he entirely neglects his duty, and put some one else in his place?

A. Certainly not; they can fill a vacancy, for ten days after it occurs, but cannot *make* a vacancy.

Q. Can a district board dismiss a teacher who cannot govern the school?

A. A real inability to govern and manage the school is sufficient reason for dismissing a teacher; but before this is determined upon, let it be clearly apparent that the fault is not with the board themselves, is not sustaining the teacher, or with certain parents, in encouraging lawlessness and disobedience.

THE TEACHER.

Q. Can a person legally teach on a "permit" who has no certificate and is not at present qualified to receive one?

A. The law knows nothing about a "permit." If by that is meant a limited certificate, provided for in section 102, such a certificate constitutes a person a qualified teacher for the time and for the town or district for which it is issued.

Q. What is the law regarding corporal punishment in the common schools of this State?

A. There is no statute authorizing or prohibiting any mode of punishment. At common law, a teacher is justified, if necessity require it, in administering moderate punishment in a reasonable manner. It should be done, if done at all, with much caution, and never in a passion.

Q. Is a teacher justified in adopting the rule—"Send pupils home who whisper without permission"—that is for the day?

A. This does not seem to be good policy. The child is sent to school to learn self-control and obedience withal. Sending him home for disobedience, especially for yielding to the constant temptation to communicate with his neighbor, defeats the object sought. The rest of the day is lost. Rather try to remedy the evil by watchfulness, by counsel, by keeping the children interested and busy; by change of seat; by punishment, if really needed. Some teachers are disposed to magnify the dreadfulness of whispering, among the smaller children. Considering the restlessness and weakness of the little ones, it is really a venial offence. With older pupils it is different. If you can't suppress whispering entirely, suppress it as much as you can, but don't induce a comatose state of the school thereby.

Q. When no rules or regulations are adopted by the school-board for the control of the school; and the teacher makes rules, must they be attested by the board?

A. The teacher is to govern the school irrespective of the question whether the board makes rules or not. The rules made by board, if any, are supposed to be of a general nature, and not to interfere with the minutiæ of the school-room. The rules made by them (or by the teacher with their consent) "for the organization, gradation and government of the school," may be enforced by suspension or even expulsion. But it does not follow that *all* the rules made by the teacher must be submitted to the board and assented to by them or "attested," before they can have any force or validity. In many things there is no need for the intervention of the board, and there would be no propriety in such intervention. The teacher must in a measure govern and manage the school in her own way. The board should have to do with the matter only where it is "needful."

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

Postage—Time Extended.

Exemption from refunding postage will be secured by all who send in their renewals during the month of April. After that we shall have to charge the postage, (which the law obliges us to pre-pay) in the bill.

Our printers unfortunately skipped ten pages, in going from the "first form" to the "second form" (148 to 159), which we discovered too late, on laying the forms together, for correction.

Laid Over.—We have received communications on "Mathematical Geography" and on "Acquisitions of Territory" in addition to those printed in this number, which we reserve for our next issue.

By an oversight at the U. S. Express Office in this city, a number of packages of Reports of the State Superintendent were sent out without being marked prepaid and the expressage charged to the State. It is promised that the mistake shall be rectified.

State Certificates—College Graduates—Normal Schools—Teachers' Seminaries.

An educational journal is not like a political newspaper devoted to the interests and special views of some party; it is for the discussion of educational problems and the dissemination of educational intelligence, and the editors of such a publication, if there be more than one, need not think alike on all subjects any more than contributors. By hearing all sides we get at the truth.

This remark seems appropriate in view of the fact that some ideas are expressed below, and may be elsewhere at times, that do not accord in all respects with those of the State Superintendent. If therefore our readers sometimes notice discrepant voices coming from the editorial tripod, they will bear in mind it is not the same person who sits there at all times.

At the late session of the legislature the law which constitutes the diploma of a normal graduate a State certificate, under certain conditions, was so far modified as to make a certificate from the board of regents that a person has completed the limited or elementary course in a normal school a limited or five years State certificate, on the same conditions, namely, when the holder shall have taught one year, and when the certificate shall have been countersigned by the State Superintendent. But a bill to authorize the State Superintendent to grant certificates to graduates of the State University after teaching one year, failed to become a law.

The same measure has been rejected by the legislature once or twice before. It has been held we believe by those who opposed the measure that if any such concession were to be made it should be to the graduates of all colleges alike. But we think also that the policy is bad; that all legislation touching such matters should seek to elevate the profession of teaching. Theoretically there is no more reason why a graduate, because a graduate, should receive a teacher's diploma after teaching a year than that he should receive a physician's diploma after practising or trying to practice medicine a year; the candidate in either case never having attended a professional school, or gone through with any course of professional instruction or training. Of course there is great difference in the common apprehension, between teaching school and attending upon the sick. Many who would not think of employing any other than a professionally educated and skilled physician, appear to regard any one who has scholastic attainments, as being abundantly qualified to teach. But a State certificate should be based on evidence of something more than scholarship, and on something more than the fact, that the candidate has kept school a certain length of time. Properly speaking, it should be based on evidence of such professional training and attainments (including scholarship) as make a man in some just sense of the term an educator; as measurably enable him and qualify him, not merely to give instruction in certain branches of

study, but to comprehend the nature of education, its laws, its proper course and appliances, and to direct and guide the work in its general aspects, and individual application.

The existence of normal schools is a recognition of this idea. The schools themselves have as yet gone but a little way indeed in carrying it out, but they have gone as far as could be expected, under existing circumstances. We take it that all intelligent principals and professors and boards having to do with such schools understand this, and constantly seek to bring them up to a higher plane. Thus the normal board in this state has recently extended the regular course of study.

It seems to us however a departure from this policy to make a certificate of having gone through a partial course a State certificate or teachers' diploma of any kind. The obtaining of the diploma of a normal graduate ought to be esteemed a high honor, and its value and importance should be jealously guarded. There should be no half way or *quasi* diplomas. It would be a suicidal policy for the State University or any other college to pursue a similar course towards students who should leave, say at their end of the sophomore year, that is if the college sought to advance its own reputation and the cause of sound scholarship and not merely to make money. Or what is more to the point, such a course would stamp a medical college as a humbug, namely, if it should certificate young men who had gone through half the prescribed course as *quasi* young doctors, authorized to practice medicine five years. Of course the cases are not entirely parallel, but sufficiently so for illustration.

Again, we think it would have been a wiser thing for the board of regents, in extending the course of study or rather the time of the course, from three years to four years, to have enlarged the requirements for graduation of a strictly professional nature, rather than to have added more studies of a merely scholastic nature to the course. If it be said that a normal graduate ought to have a respectable acquaintance with all the branches put down for the four years' course, we reply that the qualifications for admission should be raised. The time ought to come, at no remote period, when without any diminution of scholastic requirements, the last year at least in the normal schools should be mainly devoted to didactics, theoretical and practical, and when it should be possible and reasonable to give a full professional diploma, without waiting for the graduate to try his hand for a year. The ability to teach successfully should be sufficiently tested before the honors of the institution are granted at all. The present practice makes the diploma of an academic rather than of a professional character.

In this connection we would remark that the idea of making the normal schools in some degree preparatory schools for the University seems to us a mistaken one. Theoretically the University, that is considering it as a college, should be a preparatory school to the normal schools. By the time the next centennial rolls around that will be the relation of the two perhaps. But at present, while the normal schools are all filled to overflowing, and their accommodations require to be enlarged, it is an unjustifiable measure to expand their academic features for the sake of accommodating a few academic students. If there is room for students who are preparing for college to recite in certain branches with normal students, without detriment to the school in any way, well and good; but the idea of making room for them, or in any way modifying the proper policy and business of the schools as training schools for teachers to accommodate any other class of persons, is we hold indefensible. The normal schools should fulfil their own mission, do their own work; and be brought as far and as soon as may be into their proper place and function, which is furnish thoroughly trained, professional educators to go forth and help give a character and dignity and efficiency not yet reached to the work of public education.

The true policy of the State as we still

believe, and believe more strongly now than ever before, is to provide for the establishment of a number of seminaries of academic grade, a leading and especial function of which should be to give a fair scholastic training to the great body of the young persons who become our common school teachers, and quite as much professional training as students now get at the normal schools. This would relieve the normal schools of most of their present preparatory work and enable them to gather in a body students somewhat more nearly ready to be instructed in the science of education, and trained thoroughly in the art of teaching. Normal graduates would then find their appropriate place as workers in the teachers' seminaries, and in the town and city schools of the higher grades.

In urging the need of a class of schools of the kind above indicated, which, to avoid a certain prejudice we will call teachers' seminaries, we do not in the least mean to imply that town high schools are not desirable and necessary. The plan for their establishment embodied in the law just passed will meet with much favor. Not many such schools perhaps will be established at present, but the subject will receive attention, and the general idea would be greatly helped forward by a more general adoption of the town system. A central school of an advanced grade is the natural concomitant of the system—that is to say in towns of sufficient strength and population.

It requires no argument then to show that the true policy is to encourage this system as much as possible. It has taken root to a small extent in several counties, viz: Barron, Chippewa, Jackson, Portage, Marathon and Shawano. Possibly in one or two more. Good seed has fallen into the ground in may other localities, and only needs the fostering dew and sunshine of encouragement to bring it forth. It was intended by the State Superintendent, he informs us, that a section should be inserted in the law which should distinctly provide that any high school already established or which may hereafter be established in any town under the township system may share in the benefit of the subsidy offered without the requirement of any board for its government other than the Town Board of Directors. Apart from the new law a Town Board of Directors may establish a high school under section 11 of the township law, and it should only require that they comply with the conditions of the new law in other respects, as is required of incorporated villages and cities, in order to share in the high school fund. This slight change can be provided for next winter. Probably no town under the town system has as yet organized a high school.—P.

THE HIGH SCHOOL LAW.

This law passed by the recent legislature is exciting considerable attention and already we learn that the establishment of schools in accordance with its provisions is being seriously discussed in several localities. As soon as time will permit, the State Superintendent will prepare and issue circulars fully explaining the advantages of the schools provided for, and setting forth the methods of organizing and conducting them under the various circumstances contemplated in the act. He hopes to have these circulars ready for distribution about the 1st of May. It is obviously impracticable to have any of the schools in actual operation before September. Meanwhile, we ask special consideration of the extract from the Illinois School report, published as the leading article of our present number, and constituting a most valuable, able and elequent plea for "Township High Schools." We hope this will be carefully and thoughtfully read by every man, woman and child into whose hands this number of the JOURNAL shall fall, and who feels the least interest in the upbuilding of our public school system.

SUPERINTENDENT Johnson, of Maine, says in the last issue of the *New England Journal of Education*:

"The friends of the Free High Schools entertain no apprehensions in regard to

the continuance of this element in our educational work. They were not called upon at the last session of the legislature to make any efforts in defence of the same."

WHAT SHALL THEY DO WITH WITH IT?

It is the opinion of the Regents that it is not at present practicable to establish a Medical College in connection with the State University, and therefore that the Soldiers' Orphans' Home recently donated to them by the legislature for such a purpose, must, if it remains permanently in their possession, be devoted to some other object. President Bascom thinks the gift could be wisely utilized for the purposes of a University Preparatory School. The Regents, at their late meeting, appeared to be favorably impressed with this suggestion of the President, and it is likely they will ask the next legislature for such modification of the recent act as will authorize the use of the property for this purpose.

It is certainly for the interest of the University that all purely preparatory work should be withdrawn from it at an early day. It will also be for its interest that preparatory work should be largely done under its immediate guidance and influence. Preparatory and collegiate classes cannot wisely share the same buildings and grounds, and the instruction of the same faculty, but they may with advantage both be located in the same city. This is proved by the fact that a large proportion—if we remember rightly nearly one-half—of the annual Freshmen in the University of Michigan come from the Ann Arbor High School. The development of the Madison High School into a similar preparatory school for our own University is hardly to be expected or desired; but the establishment in the city, on so beautiful a site, of a separate, special and thoroughly efficient school of this sort has many strong arguments to recommend it, and is well worthy of consideration.

EACH ward school in Milwaukee has a teacher in German.

The Superintendent's Report—What is Said of It.

From a multitude of favorable comments we select the following:

"The report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction made to the legislature at its last session, is one of unusual value. We would that every voter in Wisconsin could read it. On the whole its recommendations are wise. They show careful, conscientious study, and a familiarity with the general subject, and the practical details of our common school system, its advantages and deficiencies, which is not always met with in documents of this character."—*Janesville Gazette.*

"It is the ablest and most comprehensive report we have ever examined."—*Wisconsin Independent.*

"It is an able and exhaustive document."—*Polk County Press.*

"It is undoubtedly the best report ever issued from that office. It is full of well considered matter, in reference to educational needs. There is a matter-of-fact directness, and a say-what-you-believe earnestness about the recommendations that must leave a strong impression on the reader. Every school officer and teacher should have a copy and read it."—Superintendent STEWART in *Waukesha Democrat.*

"I like your report. It is the best ever issued from the State Department."—President OLIVER AREY, *Whitewater, Normal School.*

"To my mind it is the boldest, strongest, and most satisfactory report ever issued by our State Department of Education. It cannot fail to have a powerful influence upon the educators among us. * * * Your arguments against compulsory education are absolutely unanswerable."—President Whitford, *Milton College.*

"It is an able report. I congratulate you heartily on the thorough work it shows."—Gen. EATON, *U. S. Commissioner of Education.*

Michigan abolishes the office of county and adopts that of town superintendent.

Examinations—Certificates.

THE *School Bulletin* (Albany, N. Y.), in giving a synopsis of a paper recently read before an educational convention in that state presenting results of certain investigations into its school system, says:

"He then read extracts from the letters of several Commissioners and Superintendents which fairly represented the tenor of the whole, and which went to show that these officials are almost a unit in the belief that the Superintendent of Public Instruction, should furnish printed questions for different grades of certificates.

"One Commissioner wrote: 'School Commissioners are elected by the people, and 50 per cent. of them wish to hold the office a second or third term. Hence it is that so many unqualified persons get certificates."

"Another: 'The code of Public Instruction is not plain concerning what the qualifications of a teacher ought to be. For years past, teachers have obtained their licenses through the influence of friends, without any examination. It is hard to get out of the old ruts.

"Another: 'I maintain that we cannot hope for improvement in our schools, so long as we license girls and boys to teach in the same schools in which they were taught.'

"Another: 'I know of no means generally available, that would be so effective of good, every way, general and special, as some uniform, general examination under or by State authority, not unlike the Regents' examination modified in character and degree to conform to the object in view. It should be *mandatory* in so far that none below a fixed per cent. in departments named and in the general average, can receive licenses.'

RESIGNATION.—We see by the *Gazette* that W. D. Parker, President elect of the River Falls Normal School, has resigned his position at Janesville, and that the Board of Education pay him a high and deserved compliment, in their letter accepting the resignation.

RELIGIOUS EXERCISES IN SCHOOL.

MERRIMACK, Wis., March 28, '75.

Eds. Journal Education:

In the February number of the JOURNAL I found a communication from Mrs. Arey, of Whitewater Normal School, in which she takes the ground that all schools should open with prayer, and in which her principal argument consists in saying we are, a majority of us, Christians, and that majorities rule. There seems to be no regard paid to rights of minorities. Now our government is based upon the broad foundation of equal rights to all men, "not on the rights of majorities," or in other words the "right of might." I find our school code prohibits any kind of sectarian religion being taught in the public schools of the State, and all true American citizens will say with justice too. There are twenty-two days in our school month and five months in the year in which public school must be taught; less than one-third of the whole year. Then if children must be taught superstition let it be done out of the common schools which have a prescribed course of studies by law in which no sectarian religion must be taught or promulgated.

As an illustration of the injustice proposed by Mrs. Arey, let me say it may be possible to find a school district composed of the following elements: A is one of the prominent tax payers in the district and an infidel; he believes in neither Gods, Devils, Heavens or Hells; he wishes his children to learn the arts and sciences, but not superstition. B is a Chinaman and worships Josh. C is a Mormon and devoted to numerous wives, while D is a pagan worshipping some other idol. Now all these men have their rights under our government, and if they insist on their rights may compel their religion to be taught in the schools, if they only have the majority, as Mrs. Arey says. I think California placed a grand law on her statute books during their last legislative session "putting all kinds of Bibles out of the schools of that State." I shall make no apology for attacking said communication, only that

justice is as much for minorities as for majorities. Hoping this may find a place in the next JOURNAL, I am always for equal and exact justice to all.

H. A. RANDALL.

REMARKS.

Mrs. Arey's argument was, we believe, that if any sort of religious exercise in opening school is conceded to be proper, then the majority should determine its character. This would be attended with difficulty, no doubt, if any jealousy should be felt about the matter. Better have no exercise of the kind.

Mr. Randall appears to think the prohibition in the School Code (that is in Sec. 3 of Art. X of the Constitution) of "sectarian instruction" in the schools, is a prohibition of all religious exercises. On the contrary, we understand the prohibition to imply that the framers of the Constitution regarded this as a Christian country, and acted on the supposition that the teachers of the public schools might be Christians and desire to open their schools with some sort of religious exercises, including perhaps reading from the Bible, but thought it proper, which it certainly was, to inhibit "sectarian instruction." This has no intelligible meaning if it does not mean that religious instruction may be given without violation of the Constitution, if it is *not* sectarian. That is, the teacher who bids the children to fear God and keep his commandments; who reads to them a Psalm, a chapter from the Proverbs, or from the Sermon on the Mount, or who repeats before them or with them the Lord's Prayer, does not violate the Constitution of the State.

It does not follow that it is obligatory on the teacher to have any thing of the kind in school, or that it would always be advisable. It is a matter about which the school laws prescribe nothing and forbid nothing. It is left to the good sense of the board, the teacher and the district.

Mr. Randall seems to regard everything of the sort as "superstition." We always supposed that superstition meant something like false, distorted, or unfounded religious belief or practice, and not religion itself. But this is not a matter to discuss in an educational journal, and it would be very unfortunate if any school district were in any way to make the question of religious exercises in the school a matter of disagreement. The conscientious scruples of all should be carefully respected, and no pupil required to participate in any such exercise to which its parents should object.—P.

SPELLING.

Spelling is getting to be the rage. Editors, ministers, judges and people generally, are turning out to the spelling-schools and getting rapidly floored. That our children in future contests may do better than we do now, let the subject undergo new investigation. Below is a short article which contains some good points:

"Without doubt more attention is given to spelling in schools of all grades now than a few years ago. This is certainly encouraging, as true progress in teaching is to be obtained only by beginning with the rudimentary studies. Probably most teachers who enjoyed the privilege of attending district school in their younger days recollect the spelling class which was required to 'toe the mark' and spell the words as the teacher pronounced them, in a manner somewhat oracular, although their meanings, if indeed they were tho't of at all, were often shrouded in as much mystery as were those oracles to which the ancients were wont to listen. Now nearly all teachers have the spelling lesson written, and *some* give attention to the words.

"Has the best method been found? is a proper question to ask with reference to spelling as well as other studies.

"The teacher of chemistry who should give instruction with regard to the simple elements only, without any reference to their combinations, would have no great practical knowledge or value attending his teaching. But a very similar thing is being done in the spelling of separate words by the usual method; for nearly

all the practical use of words is when they are combined to form sentences, as the chemical elements are used, not alone, but when united to form the various compounds. So our spelling-books would accomplish the work for which they are intended in a better manner if instead of having columns of words they had sentences, and proper selections of prose and poetry. These could be arranged in a manner as progressive and comprehensive as the spelling-books we now have are arranged, in regard to the number and kind of words used.

"So much for theory—now for practice: Take your first spelling class; have the members write as you read, slowly, a paragraph in the reader, with which they are familiar. When through correct carefully all mistakes in capitals, punctuation, and spelling, the first two items being so closely connected with spelling as not to be separated from it. If your class is not one of the 'necessary exeeptions to all rules,' you will be surprised at the large number of mistakes made.

"I have tried this method and know the results of the first trial, and also after using the method some time. If others should be rewarded with the same success that I have had, the method is worthy of use by all teachers.—*N. Y. Ed. Journal.*

COMPETETIVE SCHOOL EXERCISES.—By request, the following has been sent to the JOURNAL from Mr. A. F. North's school, in the village of Pewaukee:

HON. ED. SEARING,

Supt. of Pub. Instruction,

SIR: As you had the kindness when visiting our school this winter to require us to send you an account of our daily competitive exercises in Arithmetic and the results, we now, at the close of the term have the honor to comply.

The object of these exercises, as stated to us by our teacher, was at first to secure speed and accuracy in operations under the four fundamental rules. After he thought we had reached a reasonable degree of excellence in this, we took up complex fractions, etc., as fast as the B class had mastered these subjects, as affording us an opportunity to think quickly and correctly under the excitement of competition and also as affording a continued review.

As you observed, an example was put upon the board by the teachers, every scholar was expected to perform the operation on his slate and when finished to place it before the teacher, the first scholar up in each aisle, acting as monitor for the others, to place their slates in order on the pile. When a reasonable time has elapsed, the work is done on the blackboard, reasons given, etc.; the slates are examined, and each correct solution receives credit according to the order in which it was sent up.

This exercise usually occupies 10 or 15 minutes. As the number of boys and girls in our room was about equal, there being 32 boys and 33 girls registered, the teacher suggested that it would be well to test the comparative ability of the sexes by keeping a record. We were appointed for this work and send the result of four months' trial:

In Dec.	girls had	10,641	credits,	boys	11,073	credits.
In Jan.	" "	12,548	"	"	9,201	"
In Feb.	" "	9,487	"	"	9,646	"
In Mch.	" "	11,101	"	"	9,527	"
Totals.....		43,777			39,447	

One good effect of this competitive exercise was that it prompted us to be regular and punctual in our attendance, that our respective sides might not suffer loss by our fault.

Thanking you for the interest you have taken in our school and the encouraging words spoken to us.

We are, with great respect, yours,

J. J. WAITE,
BELLE C. SMITH,

PEWAUKEE, Wis., March 26th, 1875.

AT the meeting of the University Regents, called to take action in reference to the new "Science Hall" provided for by an appropriation of the recent legislature, a committee was appointed to obtain plans from competent architects and report the same at an adjourned meeting to be held on the 8th of April. It is expected a plan will then be adopted and advertisements for proposals be immediately issued.

FREE TEXT-BOOKS—TOWN SYSTEM.—We are glad to print the following:

PRAIRIE FARM, March 11, 1875.

HON. E. SEARING.—*Dear Sir*:—I take pleasure to communicate to you, the most important part of the proceedings of the Board of School Directors of the town of Prairie Farm, at their regular meeting on the 16th day of March 1875.

The board adopted a superior list of text-books for the use of the common schools in our town, said list not to be changed in at least five years. And further, the Secretary was instructed to buy the necessary books at introductory rates, and sell them to the scholars at cost price, that is two-thirds of the retail price. And further, upon application to the District Clerk, the town is to furnish books free of charge to those scholars, whose parents are unable to purchase them.

I read your report on the free text-book question carefully, and as our finances are in a rather mixed state, I thought it best not to go in too steep, but come as near to free text-books as possible. I take pride to say, that our town has taken the lead in this state on this important measure, and I trust the time is not far away, when we shall feel justified in taking one further step and have free text-books altogether.

The township system works admirably in our town, it gives general satisfaction and the Board of Directors has taken steps to regulate and enforce rules, which are very important to the welfare of the schools. We are laboring under the great disadvantage of a scarcity of teachers, and we are obliged to go outside of our county more or less, and have a continual charge of teachers, which is very injurious. I will not detain you any more, but I considered this text-book question of sufficient importance, to inform you of our progress in educational matters, even if we are far out of civilization. I will be pleased to answer any questions, about the workings of the township system of school government, so that others may see the great advantages, which can be derived therefrom.

I am a constant reader of your JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. It is identified with our wants and as long as I have anything to do with schools I neither would nor could be without it, and if out of employ of the schools, I would not dispense with it, for the reason it imparts a knowledge to the reader, which cannot be found in any other journal.

I am a German, only six years in the United States, without any previous knowledge of the English language, and I am well aware that my sentences are not constructed as they ought to be.

FRED. TELKE,
Sec'y Town Board and Town Clerk.

THE COMING CONTEST.—The time is nearing for the holding of the Oratorical Contest which was appointed for the first week of January and has since been postponed from time to time, generally with sufficient reasons, until some have predicted that the project would fall through entirely. The contest as the matter now stands takes place April 8th and those who are directly interested in the arrangements for the contest will spare no pains to make it as interesting as possible to all. Bach's orchestra, universally pronounced to be "the finest orchestra in the west" has been engaged for this occasion and lovers of good music have in store a rich treat of which it is hoped all will avail themselves. The selections will be choice and taking.

Three colleges, besides our own, will be presented. The contestants are as follows:

Lawrence University—Miss Lizzie C. Vivian.

Beloit College—A. R. Sprague.

Milton College—L. Heritage.

State University—J. M. Mills.

We need say but little in reference to this contest; its object is so well known and the idea has become so familiar from reports of similar contests held in the different states that to speak of the contest at length would be useless.

We will merely add that the time will be one of great interest to all students and in fact to all interested in the different

colleges represented. It cannot be otherwise for it is a time at which four colleges will contest for superiority in oratory.—*University Press.*

In the graduating class of one of the best High Schools in Wisconsin, located in one of the largest cities of the state, there are but four members—all girls. In the next class there are (or were at the time of our recent visit) 14 girls and 2 boys. The course of instruction in this school is not extensive. It is not likely its graduates are prepared to enter the Freshman class of any good college. Yet this is the meagre and disheartening result of an attempt to furnish facilities for higher instruction in a city of 8,000 people. The lower classes were large—aggregating some hundreds.

Is there, in a wealthy and enterprising city like that, no more *demand* for the higher grades of academic instruction? Or is the High School with its magnificent building and equipment a failure in these higher grades, and do the larger boys and girls seek elsewhere advantages their own city does not afford? There is something sadly wrong somewhere—either in the school system, or in public sentiment, or in both. Said the capable Principal, in response to such queries as these, "It is a sad commentary on the public school work that after an experience of twenty years no higher results are reached."

We have received a neat programme of the "Third Annual Commencement of the Elkhorn High School," which occurred on Friday, March 19th. We fear this school is putting on airs in thus donning "commencement" livery and issuing so elegant a programme. We wish we had been there, however, to hear the nine graceful essays, addresses, etc., with their nine graceful names, presented by the seven fair graduates. But if we had been there our first thought and question would have been, where, in the name of whatever deity presides over common sense, were *the boys?* Don't they raise these at Elkhorn? Don't they educate them? Is mere primary education considered good enough for them or by them? Or have they in the race of co-education been so distanced in the latter part of the course by the girls that they have retired in confusion from the contest? We hope Principal Sprague or some other competent authority will enlighten us on these points.

A Lecture engagement at Black Earth on the evening of the 19th was the occasion of an agreeable visit to that little village. Mr. Frawley, the energetic Superintendent of Dane's second district, was holding a teachers' examination. We looked in upon this on the morning after the lecture, finding about forty candidates busily at work in the principal's room of the graded school building. We were very pleasantly impressed with the decorations of this room, there being quite a profusion of pictures, evergreen hangings, and other graceful ornaments. A large and superior photograph of Charles Sumner—a full length view of the great statesman seated in his study—particularly attracted our attention. These things gave the room, otherwise a very plain one, an exceedingly pleasant, refining and home-like aspect, and convinced us that Principal Morrow fully understands the high educational value of such surroundings. Mr. Morrow is evidently doing good work and the village is fortunate in retaining his services so long.

A visit to the office of the *Black Earth Advertiser* was quite a surprise to us. Here we found two printing presses (one a fine cylinder) driven by steam, and were shown by Messrs. Burnett & Son, the courteous proprietors, one of the best looking and most readable local newspapers published in the state.

Besides the *Advertiser*, there are printed at this office the *Mazomanie Sickle* and the *School Monitor*. The latter, a monthly paper devoted to the interests of the common schools of Dane County, is owned and edited by Mr. M. F. Satterlee, who started the enterprise some six months

ago. The paper contains a monthly report of the various public schools, reports of Association meetings, etc., and other matter of interest to the teachers, pupils and patrons of the schools. We learned that the *Monthly* for April and thereafter is to be issued in an entirely new dress, greatly superior to the old, and is to be correspondingly improved in value and interest.

We were gratified to find these proofs of enterprise in so small a village. We trust we shall next hear of a successful Library Association and an accumulating public library. May this yet be chronicled in the JOURNAL,

Success to Black Earth, its *School Monitor*, its *Advertiser* and all its intellectual interests.

HERE comes from Brodhead an item which it is a pleasure to record. At the close of the winter term an entertainment of some sort was given by the village high school for the purpose of raising money to purchase a set of the new American Cyclopaedia." This seems to have been more than successful, as the proceeds amounted to about $225, or more than double the amount required The surplus is to be expended in other books for the use of the school, in starting, as our informant says, what its friends "hope will some day be a good school library." To scores of other Wisconsin villages we say, Go and do likewise.

Not content with the generous contri bution above mentioned, the citizens of Brodhead presented to Prof. Dwight Kinney, the principal of the High School, a handsome testimonial of their appreciation of his services, in the shape of a beautiful silver water set, valued at $55. This is a flattering but deserved compliment to Mr. Kinney whose scholarship and native ability must yet win for him a leading position among the teachers of the state.

OHIO has prescribed compulsory education.

THE Idaho schools have an attendance of 1,010 children.

FOR the success of the educational measures passed by the recent legislature large acknowledgment is justly due to Hon. S. U. Pinney, representative in the Assembly from the City of Madison. The High School bill, the Text-book bill, and the bill to secure the eligibility of women to school offices were introduced by him and advocated with both zeal and discretion. Mr. Pinney was one of the ablest, busiest, and most influential members of the lower house. We take great pleasure in recording this deserved acknowledgment.

THE proceedings of the December meeting of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association have been widely noticed in the educational journals of other states. In the *Chicago Teacher* for February is an excellent and appreciative report of the meeting, occupying an entire page, and closing with this paragraph:

"We perceive the Wisconsin School officers and teachers are not afraid to show up the wants and defects of the school system, and are confident the result of their Association work will be satisfactory to all interested."

IT will be gratifying to many Wisconsin teachers to learn that the next meeting of the "National Educational Association" will be held not at Richmond, Va., but at Minneapolis in our neighboring state. This is certainly a far more appropriate latitude for a mid-summer meeting than that of a southern capital. We are informed that Cincinnati received twelve votes, Pittsburg eight, and Minneapolis thirty. If it be true, as our informant further states, that Minneapolis will offer free entertainment to members of the Association, its invitation was given in a most liberal spirit, the attendance will be enlarged and the financial success of the meeting put beyond question.

THERE were in 1873, 323 universities and colleges in the United States, with 52,053 students. Ohio has the largest number of the institutions; New York the next largest.

A LETTER from Hon. Warren Johnson, State Superintendent of Maine, informs us that a compulsory attendance law was passed by the recent legislature of that state as one of its "freest acts." The law is similar to that of Michigan and will no doubt be partially enforced in the cities for a year or two and then become a dead letter.

Another law was passed by the same legislature, designed to increase school attendance, and having in it elements of practical wisdom. It provides for the apportionment of all state school money (about $500,000 annually) according to the annual school enrollment of pupils, and not according to the census of school population. In the enrollment those pupils only will be counted who have actually attended at least two consecutive weeks during the year.

THE State Superintendent has accepted an invitation to act as one of the judges at the Oratorical Contest of the Northwestern Inter-State Collegiate Association, to be held at Indianapolis on the 8th of May. This Association consists of the Collegiate Associations of Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, Ohio, and Indiana. We have not yet learned who have been selected as the other three judges.

WE learn that Prof. Lucius Heritage has accepted the call to a position in the Milwaukee Academy, and will enter upon his duties there the 1st of April. Mr. Heritage is the representative of Milton College at the approaching Inter-Collegiate Oratorical Contest at Madison, April 6th.

PRESIDENT REED of Missouri State University, (formerly of this state,) has been re-elected to his office for another year, with a salary of $3,000. He has accepted the position with the announcement that, at the expiration of the term, he will not again be a candidate.

DR. CLARKE says the left hand must be used more to develop the right side of the brain properly.

FOND DU LAC CO., (1st Dist.)—The Institute at Fond du Lac, March 22–26, was one of the largest ever held in the state, their being an enrollment of 197 members. Prof. Graham made a strong impression.

ROCK CO., (1st Dist.)—Superintendent Tracy says the Institute at Milton, March 22–26, was a success. Attendance about 100 with interest increasing to the end. Prof. Salisbury is pronounced to be a worker, which we had believed before.

KENOSHA CO.—Educational matters in this county are in as flourishing a condition as could be expected, with the present man for captain. The teachers are seeing more and more the need of a Normal School training, and although our quota is full, still they come and ask for admission.—J. P. BRIGGS, Co., Sup't.

WOOD CO.,— Superintendent C. L. Powers informs us that he had a successful Institute at Grand Rapids, commencing March 15, and ending March 23, followed by an examination. It would have continued through the whole of the second week, but the Court House was needed. An attendance of 55 was registered. Wood county is one of the progressive sort in educational matters.

SAUK CO.—The semi-annual meeting of the Sauk County Teachers' Association was held in Baraboo, March 5th and 6th, J. Gould presiding, and Clara Newson being secretary. A very practical course of exercises was engaged in and among the resolutions passed, the following shows of what stuff Sauk County teachers are made:

WHEREAS, A faithful discharge of our duties as teachers is necessary to the highest and best interests of society; therefore,

Resolved, That it is our imperative duty to use all the means in our power to make ourselves better acquainted with our profession, and consequently better able to discharge those duties.

Superintendent Lunn was on hand inspiring and helping, and the State Superintendent lectured Friday evening.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

THE LIFE AND WORKS OF PESTALOZZI, by HERMANN KRUSI, son of Pestalozzi's First Associate. Published by Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati and New York, 248 pp. 8 vo. Price $225.

Such books as this are what we greatly need to awaken a desire among our teachers to be something more than a temporary, popular school master, and to become an educator of such breadth of view and such power of action, as to leave a mark on the age. Of brilliant theorizing and showy charlatanism we have enough; of original thought and downright, unselfish telling work, in the great domain of education, not too much. No teacher can read this book without either being made ashamed of himself, and secretly told that he is in the wrong place, or inspired with new life and resolves, and furnished withal with many fruitful ideas.

PLANT ANALYSIS, by HON. E. A. APGAR, Supt. Pub. Ins., New Jersey; and PROF. A. C. APGAR, of New Jersey State Normal School. Handsomely printed, and substantially bound in flexible cloth. Price 80 cents by mail. Published by Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor, & Co., New York and Chicago.

This book will be found a valuable companion for students in the Science of Botany, and well adapted for use in connection with Gray's or any other series of Text-books on the subject. By using this system of analysis in classes, pupils will become familiar with the meaning of botanical terms, and will learn how to apply these terms in botanical descriptions. It is to the text-book what the slate is to the arithmetic. They will also distinguish those characteristic features of a plant which are necessary to be known in making the analysis. The book will be found useful to teachers, as its written exercises afford an evidence of the work done by the pupils. Price for introduction, 53 cents per copy.

LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE, for April is very attractive. The concluding paper on "Australian Scenes and Adventures" is remarkably well written. "The Golden Eagle and His Eyrie," with its beautiful illustrations, will prove a very interesting paper. Mr. Black's "Three Feathers" is decidedly one of the best serial novels of the day. Then follows an exquisite "Sonnet" by F. A. Hillard. "Nice," by R. Davey, is a fine descriptive article, full of information. "The Raskol, and Sects in Russia" contains a good deal of instruction. "Eleanor's Career," by Ita Aniol Prokop, is short and interesting. "Seventy years Ago," by Ethel C. Gale, breathes a delightful odor of the olden times. "A March Violet," by Emma Lazarus, is a very beautiful poem. Mr. T. Adolphus Trollope explains the question—"What is a Conclave?" "Monsoor Pacha," is a good poem by George H. Boker. "How Ham was Cured," by Jennie Woodville, evinces much good humor and philosophy. "On the Study of Shakespeare's Sonnets," by Kate Hillard, is a very good piece of literary criticism. "Our Monthly Gossip," as usual has some very charming selections.

THE ATLANTIC for April presents an unusually varied and appetizing bill of fare, suited to spring time. Among the more attractive articles are "Campaigning with Max," by Geo. E. Warring, Jr., "A Piece of Secret History" (touching President Lincoln and the Virginia Convention of 1861); "Old Times on the Mississippi," by Mark Twain, and the "Virginia Campaign of John Brown." Mrs. S. M. B. Piatt, Edgar Fawcett, James Maurice Thompson, Helen B. Bostwick, T. B. Aldrich and Whittier contribute some pretty good poetry. "Recent Literature" discusses several new books of interest, and the department of "Education" the XXXII annual report of the Board of Education of the City of New York. Altogether the number is an uncommonly good one.

THE INTERNATIONAL REVIEW, for March and April, is the second issue of the second volume. The six articles are each and all of special interest. They are as follows: Edgar Allen Poe, by John

Ingram, London; The New York Gold Room, by K. Cornwallis, New York; Hebrew Poetry, by Phillip Schaff, D. D., New York; Modern Spiritualism, by Henry Reed, Washington; The Supernatural as Evidence, by R. Payne Smith, D. D., Dean of Canterbury, England; and the Money Problem, by Amasa Walker, Mass. It is a pleasure to find Poe's name rescued at last from a load of undeserved obloquy. The two money articles are most timely, and should be read and pondered by every American. Dr. Schaff's article is one of surpassing interest. The Review has become a power in our literature and we trust will do a good and great work in giving to it a higher and healthier tone. For the most part there is no attempt at fine writing on the part of the contributors, but the articles are solid and temperate and instructive. $5.00 a year—111 William Street, New York, and 113–115 State Street, Chicago.

We call attention to an advertisement, by Mr. Plumb, of this city, of the issue of a blank combining Teachers' Contract and Certificate. It strikes us its use may be a great convenience, especially to teachers and school boards, and the Certificate is so arranged that one and the same form answers for 1st, 2d and 3d grades, which may be acceptable to superintendents.

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JOURNAL of EDUCATION

Volume V., 1875.

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Several Problems in Graded School Management—I.

BY E. E. WHITE, EDITOR OF THE NATIONAL TEACHER.

(Paper read before the National Educational Association at Detroit, Aug. 4, 1874.)

There is a growing conviction among the more intelligent observers of our graded system of schools, that there are serious defects either in the system itself or in its administration. This conviction is the strongest where the schools have reached the highest degree of system and uniformity—where, in other words, the system, as a system, has attained the highest perfection.

That we may better consider these defects, let us glance at the mechanical features of a system of graded schools—not a real system as actually administered anywhere, but a system ideally perfect *as a mechanism.*

In the first place, it maps out and prescribes a definite and detailed course of study and instruction, the best that is practicable, if not the best theoretically possible. This course is subdivided, and the time for the mastery of each part, as well as the whole, is definitely fixed. The pupils are next divided into grades or classes, corresponding to the subdivisions of the course, and all the pupils of each grade or class are required to pursue the same studies, to the same extent, in the same order, and with the same rate of progress. In other words, the mechanism of the graded system demands *absolute uniformity* in each grade, and the more nearly this essential condition is realized, the more nearly perfect is its mechanical operation.

This view discloses the difficulties which attend the administration of the system. As a mechanism, it demands that pupils of the same grade attend school with regularity, and that they possess equal attainments, equal mental capacity, equal physical vigor, equal home assistance and opportunity, and that they be instructed by teachers possessing equal ability and skill. But this uniformity does not exist. Teachers possess unequal skill and power. Pupils do not enter school at the same age; some attend only a portion of each year; others attend irregularly; and the members of the same class possess unequal ability, and have unequal assistance and opportunity. This want of uniformity in *conditions* makes the mechanical operation of the system imperfect, and hence its tendency is to force uniformity, thus sacrificing its true function as a means of education to its perfect action as a mechanism. This is the inherent tendency of the system when operated as a machine, and hence the great difficulty in administering it is to control this procrustean tendency, and secure a necessary degree of uniformity without ignoring or forcibly reducing differences in pupils and teachers.

The foregoing remarks prepare the way

for an intelligent consideration of several problems in the management of graded schools.

I. *How can pupils be taught in classes in a graded system without sacrificing their individual powers and wants?*

The pupils in graded schools, as we have seen, are divided into classes, and to secure necessary economy these classes are made as large as practicable. The fewer the number of pupils embraced in the system, the fewer must be the number of classes, and, as a consequence, the greater must be the inequality in the attainments and capacity of the members of each class, and hence the greater the difficulty of the problem now under consideration. If the teacher of a class adapt his instruction and requirements to the maximum capacity of his pupils, the great majority are hurried over their studies and receive a superficial and imperfect training. If he adapt his class work to the minimum capacity of the class, the great majority are held back, and, as a consequence, not only sacrifice time and opportunity, but fall into careless and indolent habits of study. The remaining course is for the teacher to adapt his class work to the medium or average capacity of his pupils, with such special attention to the more and less advanced pupils as may meet, to some extent, their wants. But here comes in the "per cent system" with its demands. That the class, as a whole, may attain a high average per cent, it is necessary that the lowest members of it reach a good standard, and this results in the holding back of the bright and industrious pupils until by iteration and reiteration the dull and indolent may be brought to the required standard. The amount of time and talent thus wasted in some graded schools, is very great. This is not always evident to the teacher, since the brightest pupils, being chained to the dullest, soon learn to keep step, scarcely showing their ability to advance more rapidly. This difficulty is greatly aggravated when classes are promoted *en masse* from grade to grade, the pupils being thus chained to each other year after year, or throughout the course—an efficient process for reducing pupils to the level of mediocrity.

The statement of these difficulties suggests their partial remedy. The brighter and more capable pupils in each class must have the opportunity to work away from the less capable, and to step forward into a higher class when the difference between them and their lower classmates becomes too great for a profitable union in the same class. To this end there must be a proper interval between the successive classes, and the reclassification of pupils must be made with corresponding frequency.

Experience alone can determine what this interval should be and the frequency with which pupils should be promoted. It is possible that both of these facts may depend somewhat upon the number of pupils included in a graded system, a much more complete classification being possible in large cities than in small towns. While this may be true, it is believed by many experienced superintendents and other intelligent observers that the universal experience of graded schools condemns the prevalent practice of promoting pupils but once a year, with a year's interval between the classes. This wide interval is a serious obstacle in the way of a needed reclassification of pupils. The more capable pupils cannot be transferred to a higher class, since this obliges them to go over the ground of two years in one—a task successfully performed by very few pupils—and the less advanced pupils can not be put back into a lower class without serious loss in time and ambition, if they are not withdrawn from school. It may be well for a few pupils in any system of graded schools to spend an entire year in reviewing the previous year's work, but these exceptional cases are usually the result of an unwise attempt to hold pupils too long together. Large classes of young pupils can not be kept together even for one year, without serious loss both to those who are held back and to those who are unduly hurried. What is needed is a system of classification and promotion that shall provide for the breaking of classes at least twice a

year, with a transfer of the more advanced pupils of the next higher class, and also with special transfers of bright pupils from class to class as often as may be necessary, and special provision for pupils deficient in some branch of study.

We are aware that the system of annual promotions has special advantages. It reduces the number of classes in the smaller cities and towns, and it saves labor and trouble, especially when classes are promoted in a body on a minimum standard. It is undoubtedly true that a procrustean system which puts pupils in classes, reduces them to the same capacity, and moves them regularly and evenly forward, requires little skill or trouble to run it, but this can not compensate for the serious losses involved. The highest good of pupils ought never to be sacrificed to secure a self-adjusting mechanism and uniformity of results.

II. Another problem in the management of graded schools, to which attention is called, may be thus stated: *How to subject the results of school instruction to examination tests and not narrow and groove such instruction.*

In a graded system of schools there must necessarily be some uniform basis of classification and promotion, since the object of classifying pupils is to bring those of like attainments into the same classes that they may advance together, and, at the same time, receive the greatest possible benefit from the instruction imparted. The promotion of pupils on the recommendation of teachers, or by classes without reference to relative attainments, is, as all experience shows, subversive of classification and thoroughness of instruction; and especially is this true in a system of schools comprising several departments or classes of the same grade Teachers differ widely in skill and efficiency, and, as a general rule, the more superficial the teacher, the higher his estimate of the attainments of his pupils. Hence the relative acquirements and standing of pupils must be determined by the application of some uniform test; and the more thorough and comprehensive this test, the more complete, other things being equal, will be the resulting classification. Moreover, teachers as a class need the check of test examinations to prevent a too rapid advancement of their pupils. I have seen graded schools in which all proper classification was destroyed by the strife between teachers to advance their pupils into higher books and studies.

But whatever may be true of the necessity or value of test examinations, they are very generally employed in graded schools, and their character largely determines the character of school instruction. If the examination tests are narrow and technical, the instruction will be narrow and technical; if the tests run to figures, the instruction will run to figures; if the tests demand details, they will "emphasize and make imperative all the lumber of the text-books;" if they cover only a part of the studies, the non-test studies will receive little attention. Indeed, it may be stated, as a general fact, that school instruction is never much wider or better than the tests by which it is measured.

This narrow and grooving tendency of test examinations is greatly increased when the results are used as a means of *comparing the standing of schools and the success of teachers.* The principal of the first grammar school in one of the largest cities in the East once said to the writer: "My success as a teacher is measured by the per cent of correct answers my pupils give to the series of questions submitted in the examinations for promotion to the high school. Whatever qualifications these tests call for I must produce or fail. I can not stop to inquire whether my instruction is right or wrong. *I must prepare my wares for the market.*" Few teachers can resist the grooving influence of such a system, and, in spite of it, teach according to their better knowledge and judgment. I have seen blackboards covered with "probable" questions, and classes, meeting before and after school to be crammed with set answers to them, as a preparation for a test examination. I have known classes to memorize the names of all the bones in the human

body, hundreds of dates in American history, and scores of the mechanical processes of mensuration, because these things were known hobbies of the question maker. I have known the instruction of an entire corps of intermediate or grammar school teachers to be largely concentrated on three or four test studies to the great neglect of other branches of equal, if not greater, importance. Principals have neglected the lower classes in their schools, and given their time and energies for weeks to the special drilling of their first class—the one to be subjected to the comparative test—and pupils have thus been fearfully overtasked.

The difficulties and errors thus pointed out suggest their remedies. We have only time for three or four specifications. The examination tests should be as wide as the approved course of instruction, covering every study and every important exercise. Since this can not be done when the examinations are conducted exclusively in writing, the written tests should be supplemented by oral ones, relating not only to the branches of study, but also to the discipline of the schools, their moral influence and life, the manners inculcated, and the general culture imparted. It is true that this will require time, but are not these things as important as the narrow and technical knowledge usually covered by the written tests?

Again, the questions should be so framed as to test the pupil's knowledge of the *subjects taught*—his comprehension of the leading facts and principles, rather than his familiarity with the details and verbiage of the text-book. They should place training before cramming, and culture before technics. It is true that classes thus examined will not reach as high a per cent as they would were the tests confined strictly to the text-books—were every question to fall within the prescribed course of instruction. But the object of a test examination is not to assist pupils in reaching a high per cent, but to determine what they actually know and to indicate *what they ought to know.* When classes reach an average of ninety to one hundred per cent in a test examination, the fact is of itself evidence that the tests were either grooved to a narrow course of instruction, or that the special drilling of the more backward pupils was attended with a great sacrifice of time and opportunity on the part of the other pupils.

Another remedy suggested is, that the results of test examinations should not be used *to compare schools and teachers.* A careful observation of this practice for years has convinced me that such comparisons are generally unjust and mischievous. There is often a marked difference in the intelligence of the different districts in a city, in the number of pupils under instruction, and in other conditions for which the board of education and the public make no allowance. Moreover, these published tables of examination per cents often put a premium on special cramming and false teaching, and sometimes on downright dishonesty. The teacher who ignores higher motives and bends all his energies to secure a high per cent, is rewarded, while the teacher who scorns to degrade his high calling to the preparation of "wares for the market," is condemned. When the schools bro't into comparison with each other are in the same building and under the same principal, these evils are more readily avoided.

A final suggestion is, that the pupil's standing should be the result not of one but of several examinations. The holding of monthly examinations, a practice now quite common in Ohio, and the West generally, I believe, is much better than the former practices of annual and term examinations. The reasons are too obvious to require their statement. I will only add that these monthly examinations are often a severe tax on both teachers and pupils. It is simply an outrage to require children to write from four to six hours a day under the severe strain of a test examination. The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals should so extend the sphere of its humane efforts as to include some of our public schools on examination days.

(To be continued.)

Too Many Cooks; or, The Township versus the "Deestrict" System—I.

BY A PRACTICAL TEACHER.

"Bring me no more reports."—*Falstaff.*

It is sometimes affirmed that educational systems are not unfrequently framed by those who have little or no practical acquaintance with the subject, and consequently such systems, not being well adapted to the circumstances of society, have to undergo frequent alterations. Such, however, cannot well be said of our American system, which, from its first inception until now, has been peculiarly an institution "of the people, for the people and by the people." This system which is still of course far from being perfect, being as yet in many respects but in its infancy, has grown with the rapid growth of the country, and become stronger with its increasing strength, and better furnished and equipped with its ever accumulating wealth. Like the Siamese twins, the country and the schools were born together and rocked in the same rude cradle, and their destinies have all along been so closely interwoven that whatever is calculated to injure the one is ever keenly felt by the other. Heaven has thus so indissolubly united them that if any fatal blow is ever aimed at the life of the public schools, such blow will fall with equally crushing effect upon the whole vital structure of our free institutions. A divorce between them would be equivalent to a moral earthquake; and in this view we may perhaps be permitted, without any irreverence, to use the solemn language usually employed in the Christian form of marriage service, at same time expressing a hope, that "what God has joined together let no man put asunder."

The present highly flourishing condition of public education in this country which has been the envy and admiration of the world, shows that the honored names who have been instrumental in moulding the system of free schools were not visionaries but practical clear-headed men who thoroughly understood the work before them. Not a few of them have wielded the rod of Solomon, and have known from experience what it was to "board around." But it is not always necessary, in order to obtain profound or advanced educational views, that a man should have done this. Indeed, it cannot be doubted that those who are most exposed to the dust and din of daily toil in the school-room, and who feel the weight of the cares and troubles incident to their profession, are not always the men who can see most clearly what is required in order to keep the schools abreast with the advancing spirit of the times. They who are engaged in the fierce struggle of a battle and have their hands fully employed are not often the best fitted to direct in the general arrangements of the field. Men like Herbert Spencer and Stuart Mill who probably never taught any kind of a school for a single hour all their lives can sit in their quiet closets, and by dint of profound study and meditation upon great social problems of which public education is one of the most vitally important evolve principles and methods of instruction which shall commend themselves to practical men, and "stand the test of the school-room." Still, the man who has been at the front cannot fail to know *something;* and it is by the union of practice with theory which are (so to speak) the two legs of progress in everything, that our schools are ever kept steadily moving forward in the grand march of improvement which characterizes the stirring times in which we live.

The fundamental principles and aims of the system are of course ever the same, but the carrying out of the *details* is a matter of time and experience. The general enlightenment of the people is at once the cause and the effect of improvement in the public schools. As the schools, by their elevating influence, diffuse a wider intelligence among the people, they in turn, raised through their instrumentality to a higher moral and intellectual plane, constantly strive still farther to extend their influence in the country.

Among the agencies at work none are

more essential than the office of State Superintendent, an office which has always been remarkably well filled in this State, and never better than by the present distinguished incumbent whose valuable Report, lately issued, is well worthy of a careful perusal by every intelligent teacher. It is a massy volume, beautifully printed, and contains much useful information as well as many important suggestions. Nowhere have we found the engrossing subject of "compulsory education" so philosophically discussed. By the advocates of this unnatural measure, it seems to be generally assumed, that compulsion alone will cure all the evils complained of. This view our worthy Superintendent shows, in the most satisfactory manner, to be founded upon an erroneous supposition. In discussing the subject, he first takes up, for the purpose of finally disposing of, the very general mistake in regard to the *extent of illiteracy* in our State. It informs us that having used every available means at his command for ascertaining the real facts of the case, the partial results arrived at only strengthened him in the conviction that "*every healthy child of school age outside the cities and some large villages was receiving the elements of instruction.*" He next demonstrates the fallacy of assuming, as is too frequently done, that "crime is the direct result of illiteracy." This he does in a very masterly and convincing manner. "Crime," he says, "is not the result of illiteracy, but both crime and illiteracy are the twin results of antecedent causes—poverty, hereditary defects in the physical, intellectual and moral constitution, the vicious example of parents, the debasing influences of their entire social environment." In this wise conclusion we most heartily agree, and believe, moreover, that *something more*, and that reaches farther, than mere compulsory measures is necessary even partially to remedy this apparently ineradicable evil—an evil as extensive as the wide-spread family of man—an evil which has its far-reaching, gnarled, twisted roots deep down in the very foundations of human society. In the all but universal scramble for wealth, many unfortunates, especially in the larger cities, are overborne in the struggle, and the result is what is called "the survival of the fittest." But this is a question of questions, one that the ablest statesmen and philanthropists of all ages and countries have hitherto failed to solve. All alike among our political economists have hitherto signally failed to devise a radical cure for what a certain well known national poet so graphically describes as "the half-sister of death, the cousin-german of hell"—poverty and its too frequent concomitants, ignorance, vice, disease and crime. And no power on earth ever can or ever will begin to remedy this great and crying evil but the universal spread of "pure and undefiled religion."

The "township system" next comes under review, and its superiority to the present "deestrict" system is clearly established by facts and arguments of the most convincing character. Were it introduced, we believe it would be better for the schools, better for the teachers, better for the general interests of education. Without it, there can be little or no system, little unity of action, little reliance upon educational statistics. If the people anywhere are opposed to it, this is only because they are ignorant and blind to the best interests of themselves and their children. Did they see it in the true light, they would not hesitate a moment about having it introduced everywhere. Under the "deestrict" system, it has long been seen that there is too much opportunity presented for petty quarrels among the school officials who, in very many instances, are persons unfit to hold that office. In this way, instead of being left free to study how he can best discharge his duties for the benefit of his pupils, the teacher is too often obliged, in order to maintain his footing, to study quite another thing, namely, the whims, caprices and prejudices of his employers. If he did not do so to some extent, he would very soon find himself to be "nowhere." Now, no system can be anything like perfect which does not provide means for encouraging and rewarding

progressive teachers. The best school system that could be devised is of little account excepting as it is vitalized by the warm currents proceeding from the hearts and brains of living teachers. It is this alone which imparts the breath of life and gives vigor and permanency to any system, and to the want of it, which is a natural consequence of the present system, many if not all of the existing evils in school affairs may easily be traced.

It has been the writer's lot to teach school in more than one State of the Union, and in not a few different "deestricts," in accordance with the prevailing peripatetic fashion, and I must confess that I never liked the working of that local system. It always appeared to me that the people would respect a teacher all the more, and the children likewise, if he were appointed by those over whom they had little or no control. For the most part, in the rural districts, the children are rude and ill-bred, and of course they carry their bad habits into school. The *teacher* is so called because his office is to *teach*, but too many pupils require not only to be *taught* but likewise to be *broken in*, like a wild ass' colt, their training being woefully neglected at home through the indolence of lazy fathers, or their tempers spoiled by scolding mothers. Perhaps the very man that hired the teacher has the rudest and wickedest children of all, and what is he going to do about it? I pause, &c. It is thus sometimes a very ticklish position to maintain, but if the teacher were less directly dependent upon the people of the district, he would feel more at ease, and be better able to administer equal justice in the school-room to all without fear or favor.

In what follows, I will present the reader with a few chips from my log (this being chip No. 1) in order to exhibit a few phases of the moribund "deestrict" system. While I freely allow that there are many excellent and worthy men members of local school boards, there are a still larger number of quite a different class. In almost every *town* it is comparatively easy to obtain the right kind of school board, but it is often difficult to find the proper men for a *local* board. And when the majority are ignorant and narrow minded, they too often sacrifice the best interests of the school to the gratification of petty spite or private animosity. The school becomes the bone of contention, each trying to rule it, and when, more especially, they happen to be of different creeds, nationalities or temperaments, they will fight over it with all the ardor and fury of the Grecian heroes while contending over the mangled remains of "beloved Patroclus." I once knew a district situated in a valley that, from this very circumstance, received the name of the "devil's valley academy!"

Some years ago, while residing in a neighboring State, I was commencing a winter term, and had got a week or two of it over when as I was sitting one evening just after dark in my boarding place musing on the shortness of country school terms, the smallness of pay and the "onpleasantness" of things generally in a teacher's life, a heavy foot was heard outside, and in a minute afterwards a stranger entered the door. He was apparently past middle age with strongly marked features and black curly hair, and from his manner and appearance I at once concluded that he belonged to that ancient, peace-loving inspired race who hail from old Erin. I was soon assured of the correctness of my conjectures about his nationality, by the master of the house introducing the stranger as Mr. O'Rafferty.

"Teacher," said he, "this is Mr. O'Rafferty and he wishes to see you for a little about his school report. He is clerk of Joint School District No. 1 in this town; an honest man, an excellent neighbor and a good dimmicrat."

"Glad to see you," said I, "take a chair Mr. O'Rafferty, sit by the stove and warm yourself."

"By the blue-blazus," said the gentleman just named, as he drew a chair towards the stove, "by the blue-blazus, but it's a cauld wind blowing and a stiff bluff I had to climb." As he concluded this remark, Mr. O'Rafferty took from the depths of his coat-pocket a quart-bottle

filled, as I supposed, with that villainous compound known as "Irish Coffee," and placed it on the table. He then began to fumble in another pocket from which he soon drew out several official looking papers and then handed them to me, remarking as he did so, "You see, Mr. Whats-your-name, for a number of years I've been school clerk, and as I'm no skuller, I wish you to fill up my papers. I'm told you're a fine fellow and a man of education that was driven north by the war. You're just the man I want. Mr. Teacher, will you take a drink? It's partikler good stuff, you may bet upon that."

"With pleasure," said I, putting the flask to my lips, and taking a homeopathic dose of the abominable stuff much against my will, but knowing that if I refused to drink with him, he would think ill of me. "Here's health and long life to you, Mr. O'Rafferty," said I, as I lifted it up the second time, "and long may you wave as clerk of Joint School Dist. No. 1!"

This good-humored sally pleased the old man, and we were soon *warm* friends (around the comfortable stove); and when the school clerk had got his cutty pipe in working order, and taken another hearty pull at the benzine, I told him I was now ready to proceed to business.

"Of course," said I, "you've got a memorandum of the particulars about your school district—number of children, money received, money expended, and so forth."

"The devil a 'randum have I got," answered Mr. O'Rafferty, "for the good raison you see that I can neither read nor write. Where I was born in Tipperary there was no schools for such as me. Daniel O'Connell, the Great Agitator, wanted them started after home-rule was established, but the poor man died before things was fixed up. I wish I could handle the pen for I've a very poor mem-'ry, Mr. Teacher."

"What's to be done, then," said I. "How can any man fill up a return without facts and figures? How many children of school age did you return last year?"

"That's what I was tryin' to remimber. Now, let me see," continued the puzzled school clerk, looking very thoughtful, "let me see, it must be somewheres near fifty or more likely it was eighty. Well, let it go at 80. That, you know," continued he with a chuckle, "that will entitle us to more public money. Take a drink, Mr. Penman."

"How many of these might be girls and how many boys," said I, "you see we must keep them separate." The Tipperary man here took another mouthful of his favorite beverage. He then said,

"Yes, yes; by all manner of manes, keep them separate. That's very right, keep the boys and the girls separate, or there will be trouble."

Finding that he knew nothing about it, I filled in the numbers thinking it best to make the sexes equal.

I now proceeded to the "financial" part of the statement, and asked, "How much money have you in hand?" "Not a cint," said the clerk, "neither in hand or anywhere else. Our treasury is like Pat Murphy's well, it's dried up. But there's plinty yet in this here bottle," said he, once more feeding the internal burning fever of his unquenchable throat with another mouthful. "Have you no balance?" said I again, "no money on hand this year?" "Are you deaf?" quickly replied the fiery son of Erin. "Arrah! Didn't I tell you this very minute that we nivver has no ballast in hand. In fact, it's too much trouble to take charge of ballast. Mr. Schoolmaam, you can fill it up like a lamplighter yourself, without cross-questioning me like a blackguard lawyer in a murther case."

"Well then," said I, "how much did you raise last year for your teacher?"

"Raise! raise! How in the name of holy Saint Patrick do I know what they raised, for wasn't I laid up at the time the meetin' was held with the *burnt critters?* And didn't I depind on Tommy Malony, the treasurer, keeping accounts of it, and didn't Tommy, bad luck to him! get drunk in Mike McDonald's saloon last summer and lose half the school money out of his pocket, besides fifteen dollars

of his own money? And didn't Tommy avoid comin' to my house ever since for fear I should ask him about the ballast, when I know very well he has no ballast in hand? Here, Mr. Penman, take another drink and it will help you bring your ideas to a pint. Put the darned thing through as quick as you can, for I must be stepping.

I felt in a dilemma; but the quick witted Irishman soon came to my assistance.

"Can't you find it out by *Algebray*," said he, with a grin, "I've heard it said *that* was a wonderful way of finding out unknown quantities."

"But," said I, "you must first give me a fact or two to begin with and perhaps I will then be able to find out the rest without Algebra."

The quantity of liquor in the bottle now looked exceedingly small, and as it got beautifully empty, the man from Tipperary got gloriously full.

In the meantime I had filled up the return the best way I could, reasoning by analogy, and when it was completed I handed it to Mr. O'Rafferty.

"Wot am I in your debt?" asked the now smiling clerk of Joint School District No. 1.

"Nothing at all," said I, "it gives me much pleasure to have it in my power to oblige you; but remember," I added, "the next time you come to me upon such business, you must try and be better prepared."

"Prepared!" shouted the now irate Irishman, "prepared! Is it the whisky didn't plaise ye, Mr. Schoolman? Poker and tongs! Didn't I send my second oldest daughter to the store this morning for the best whisky expressly to thrate you? Ask any of the neighbors if Mat. O'Rafferty has the name of not thratin' them as does him any favor. But I must put. Good bye, Mr. Penman, and should you ever come my way you will be sure to receive a thrate of the best I can set before you."

As soon as this singular specimen of humanity had left I began to consider how valueless were all educational statistics based upon such reports which ought properly to be classed among "works of the imagination." G. H.

BUFFALO COUNTY.

(*To be continued.*)

How Did the United States Obtain its Territory?

BY A. O. WRIGHT.

"A Teacher" in the March number of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION asks some one to answer the above question. He (or she) says he has examined several histories and finds that they do not agree. He says the "Louisiana Tract" is somewhat doubtful in his mind. My experience in institutes and examinations shows that there is a pretty general lack of information on this subject among quite intelligent teachers, and this through no fault of the teachers, but because the text books are deficient. Until recently Goodrich's work has been almost the only book used in the State. And how utterly unreliable, confused, and misleading that book is, every intelligent teacher knows. Even Swinton, Barnes and Anderson, far superior as they are, are not perfect. At the risk of like imperfections, I will try to answer this question.

I. THE UNITED STATES IN 1873.—Before the Revolutionary War the thirteen colonies held the territory between the Atlantic and the Alleghany Mountains from Maine to Georgia. Their *claims* were much more extensive, based on charters or grants made by the English crown, and these of course based on the English claims from the discoveries of the Cabots and others. As England claimed all the territory west to the Pacific Ocean, her claims conflicted with those of France and Spain. These conflicting claims led to the old French War, at the end of which in 1763, France ceded all her possessions in America to England and to Spain. Spain already held Texas, California and New Mexico, and now received all the valley of the Mississippi which lay west of the river, *and the island and city of New Orleans.* That part of Louisiana which was thus ceded to Spain was hereafter called Louisiana, and it was this territory which the United States afterwards bought.

The conflicting claims of the three nations were thus settled by the sword; but the conflicting claims of the English colonies remained unsettled till after the Revolutionary War. The original grants made by the English crown were drawn so loosely that they overlapped one another. Thus New Hampshire and New York quarreled for what is now Vermont. Massachusetts claimed Western New York, and Connecticut claimed Northern Pennsylvania and Northern Ohio. The border wars arising out of these claims deserve a mention in our history. The local history of the "New Hampshire Grants" of Wyoming Valley and of the Western Reserve ought to better known than it is.

There is one part of the annals of our Revolutionary War which is not mentioned in a single school history, but which made Wisconsin American instead of English. When Jefferson was Governor of Virginia in 1779, he sent a few hundred militia under Geo. Rogers Clark through the wilderness to capture the English posts north of the Ohio. With the capture of these posts the whole country be tween the Ohio, the Mississippi and the Lakes, became the prize of Virginia, and were claimed by her as her individual conquest.

In 1783, England acknowledged the independence of the colonies and ceded to them all her possessions south of Canada. The boundaries of the United States, when thus admitted into the family of nations, were on the north the present boundary, on the east the Atlantic, on the south Florida and the Gulf of Mexico, and on the west Louisiana, defined as above. The conflicting claims of the colonies were settled soon after the peace, Virginia leading off with the cession of the Northwest Territory of the United States.

II. Louisiana.—France regained Louisiana in 1800, but the English naval victories had destroyed the power of France at sea, and rather than have Louisiana fall into the hands of England, Napoleon sold it to us in 1803. The territory thus acquired was all the valley of the Mississippi west of the river and the island and city of New Orleans, east of the river.

III. Oregon, including Washington and that part of Idaho west of the Rocky Mountains, belongs to the United States by right of discovery followed by settlement. The coast was discovered in 1788, and the Columbia river in 1792, by Boston trading ships. In 1803, the Missouri and the Columbia rivers were explored by Lewis and Clark, acting under the authority of the government, and a settlement was made at the mouth of the Columbia in 1811. Every one who can should read Irving's account of these explorations and settlements in his Astoria. Oregon, and what is called British Columbia, were claimed by both England and the United States. From 1818 to 1846 the territory was held in joint occupancy by both, when it was divided on the present boundary.

IV. Florida.—Florida was purchased of Spain in 1819, but actual possession was not given till 1821.

V. Texas.—After Mexico rebelled from Spain in 1821, American settlers poured into Texas, and in 1835 they rebelled and established an independent republic. In 1845, at the request of Texas, it was "annexed" to the United States. Texas claimed the country between the Rio Grande and the Nueces. The seizure of this by the United States was the immediate cause of the unjust Mexican war.

VI. California and New Mexico.—California and New Mexico were ceded by Mexico at the close of the war in 1848. These included what is now California, Nevada, Utah, New Mexico, and parts of Colorado and Arizona.

VII. The Gadsden Purchase.—In 1853 the southern part of Arizona was purchased of Mexico.

VIII. Alaska.—In 1867, Alaska was purchased of Russia for $7,200,000 in gold.

In the history thus given the transfer of political sovereignty has been the only thing noted. The titles to land went with the political sovereignty, except in the settlement of the old colonial claims. In that case the States of Virginia, Mas-

sachusetts, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, New York and New Hampshire readily yielded the political sovereignty, but clung to their land-titles as far as they could, both to protect settlers to whom they had already sold lands in the disputed territories and for the sake of the money to be derived from the sale of the rest.

Again, the Indian titles to land could not be ceded or sold by England, France or Spain. These had to be purchased by the United States in separate treaties.

There are still two questions worth asking, as to the justice and the value of these several acquisitions.

If our fathers were right in rebelling against England and establishing our independence, they were certainly right in holding at the close of that successful war not only the country then settled, but also all the country between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi. Both sections they held by the right of conquest, and as we believe that the war in which they were gained was a just war we must believe that this was a just acquisition of territory. And as to the value of this territory there can be no doubt. Though not one third in extent of our present territory, it is more valuable than all the rest. There is no part of the American continent of equal extent, that begins to equal it in value, and the only part of the world which surpasses it natural advantages is Western Europe. It is fitted to be the birthplace of a mighty empire.

Our next acquisition was an excellent bargain. It was fairly bought, but for $15,000,000 which was as well known then as now to be a ridiculously low price. The possession of the mouth of the Mississippi had already become necessary for the commerce of the growing west, and Louisiana was more valuable to us than it could be to any other country. Two consequences to our nation came from this great acquisition: the Mississippi valley became the ultimate seat of empire upon this continent, and slavery and freedom began the great struggle which ended in the Civil War.

Oregon was acquired as justly as any American territory has been acquired by a European power. I will not enter on the question of the title of the Indians to the land they wandered over but did not cultivate. But as between us and any European power, Oregon was fairly acquired by discovery followed by settlement. And in the final division with Great Britain, the disputed territory was divided fairly. This gave us access to the Pacific coast and a territory of considerable value.

Our histories say that Florida was purchased of Spain. It was purchased under the threat of war, at a time when Spain was in no condition to fight. The price paid was that the United States agreed to pay some disputed claims of American citizens which Spain had refused to pay to the amount of $5,000,000. These claims were mostly for runaway slaves, which Spain would not have been obliged to pay for under the ordinary usage of nations. This was the first of the aggressions upon Spain and Mexico in the interest of slavery, which disgrace our history. With Florida we took a large war with the Seminoles which was neither profitable nor glorious.

The next aggression was in the settlement of Texas by Americans, who then proceeded to rebel against Mexico with the sympathy and assistance of a large part of the American people. And when Texas was annexed, the robbery was completed. But not content with Texas, the United States seized also the country between the Rio Grande and the Nueces which was settled by Mexicans and was no part of Texas. The object of this seizure was to provoke a war with Mexico, and it succeeded.

California and New Mexico were the prize of conquest, but were paid for at the low rate of $15,000,000, considering the great gold mines that had been just found there. They are valuable acquisitions, unjustly acquired.

Perhaps the Mexicans felt partly repaid when five years later they sold us and Arizona at the same time for $10,000,000. A more useless tract of land could not have been found this side of Patagonia.

It is still a question whether the purchase of Alaska was wise. Probably we paid all it is worth, and the wisdom of its purchase is only justified by the hope of some time annexing the rest of the continent whenever opportunity offers. A consummation not very devoutly to be wished. For with the land we must take the people who inhabit it, and this in the case of Mexico and the rest of Spanish America would be fatal to our republic. The population we should thus annex would be about as unfit for American citizens as any people on the face of the globe. They have proved their peculiar unfitness for republican government by a fifty year's caricature of it. The only territory which it would be really desirable for us to annex, if it could be done honorably and peaceably, is the Dominion of Canada, with the rest of British America. With that our acquisition of territory ought to cease. Thus far all our northern acquisitions of territory have been honorably gained, while most of our southern acquisitions have been stained with injustice. The cause of this was the malign influence of slavery, which poisoned our national life. Since slavery is dead, we may hope that we shall acquire no territory to the south, or if we ever should, that its acquisition would be just and honorable.

HOW WE GROW.

TERRITORIAL ACCESSIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

School books furnish but scanty information upon such a subject; other sources must therefore be applied to. A good map of the country would be one showing the different accessions of territory since the union of the thirteen colonies. The history of our ceded lands is an interesting chapter in our country's annals. Every State has its own separate history. At first, large tracts of country were purchased. The story of the *Louisiana purchase* reads like a romance. The territory included in the great Mississippi valley had repeatedly changed hands, till at last Napoleon sold it to American Commissioner for 75,000,000 francs. At this time England and France were at war, and the former had sent an expedition to capture New Orleans. Fearing such a result, Napoleon proposed to sell the whole land, and President Jefferson sent Commissioners to treat, who, finding a good opportunity of making an excellent bargain, in true Yankee fashion, instead of the Island of Louisiana, in the mouth of the Mississippi, purchased 300,000 square miles! To the more conservative, this looked rather much of a "big thing," and both Jefferson and the elder Adams at first refused to sanction the purchase, but at length the bargain was ratified by Congress.

Texas presents another interesting chapter. In consequence of La Sala's settlement in 1685, the French claimed this territory as part of Louisiana. Three quarters of a century later it began to be pitchforked from one power to another; in 1763 it was ceded to Spain; in 1800 it went back to France; in 1803, it was turned over to the United States; in 1823, it was exchanged for Florida; and it finally reverted to the United States at the close of the Mexican war.

California annals likewise are full of romantic incidents. Long before the discovery of gold was generally published, it was known to some who kept it a secret; but no one ever dreamt of the vast, nay fabulous extent of its auriferous deposits. The history of San Francisco and the surrounding country is like a leaf taken from the "Arabian Nights."

The diplomatic proceedings in regard to *Oregon* are fresh in the recollection of most readers. We claimed it first by right of discovery, then by right of exploration, afterwards by the right of settlement and trade, and again by right of purchase. Great Britain objected, but in time the matter was arranged satisfactorily.

In 1867, 3,600,000 square miles were added to our domain by the purchase of Russian America. Many were opposed to such a bargain, but in course of time the wisdom of it will appear. Within the last year or two the Icelanders, a hardy, industrious and intelligent people,

have formed the plan of colonising part of this region, and by all accounts, have already commenced settlements.

We have now a territory nearly as large as all Europe, and our national growth which has been unexampled in the past, inspires the strongest hopes for the future increase of our possessions which will yet embrace the whole continent and include the numerous isles therewith connected. But the spread of free principles and free institutions, by the diffusion of education, is a still more important problem than the means of increasing our square mileage. China and Japan are already taking "object lessons from us, and bid fair to become Americanized in process of time. The only thing to be feared is a rupture among ourselves. This can only be prevented by our acting strictly and steadily in all our public measures and legislative enactments in the true spirit of that divine maxim which teaches us to "do unto others as we would that they should do unto us." This maxim applies equally to men of all colors, and includes whites as well as blacks. On the other hand a narrow, selfish policy which looks solely to personal aggrandizement or party triumph may rend a portion of it away but will assuredly never add anything to our domain.—G. HARPER, *Buffalo Co.*

MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY.

(ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS.)

For the benefit of your correspondent who signs himself "A Teacher," in the March No. of the JOURNAL, as well as of others who may not have access to better sources of information, I send a few jottings in answer to the questions proposed in regard to the form and motions of the earth. The study of any good book in mathematical geography would make all such subjects very clear, but the ordinary school text-books on geography or physical geography touch but very lightly upon such points which are reserved for higher treatises.

1. *Form of the Earth.*—Dr. McIntyre says, though the earth may be considered as spherical, yet it has been discovered that it is not truly so. This matter was the occasion of great disputes between the philosophers of the last age, among whom Sir Isaac Newton and James Cassini, a French astronomer, took the most active part in the controversy. Sir Isaac demonstrated from mechanical principles that the earth was an *oblate spheroid*, or that it was flatted at the poles, the polar diameter or axis being shorter than the equatorial diameter. The French astronomer asserted the contrary, or that it was a *prolate spheroid*, the polar diameter being longer than the equatorial diameter. The French King, in 1736, being desirous to end the dispute, sent out two companies of the ablest mathematicians then in France, the one towards the equtor and the other towards the north pole, in order to measure a degree of a meridian in these different parts. From the results of their admeasurements, the assertions of Cassini were rejected and those of Newton confirmed beyond dispute.—Therefore, since that time the form of the earth has been considered as that of an oblate spheroid, that is, of a solid such as would be generated by the revolution of a semi ellipse about its minor axis.

Such being the fact, the next thing is to account for it on mechanical principles. Sir Isaac Newton supposed the earth to assume the form that a homogeneous fluid would acquire by revolving on an axis, namely, the figure of an *oblate spheroid*, and found that the diameter of the earth of the equator is to its diameter from pole to pole, as 230 to 229. In a note to his work on the Globes, Keith says upon this subject that the above ratio was deduced from the supposition of uniform density on the earth. It is necessary in determining this figure to have recourse to methods which are not liable to such uncertainty; by these it is known that the ratio of the axis of the earth to the diameter of the equator is nearly that of 319 to 320; that the semi-axis is nearly 3951.09, English miles; the equatorial semi-diameter 3963.48; the difference of which is 12.39; and the mean semi-diameter is 3959.35.

To understand the principles, it is ne

cessary to consider the action of the two forces whose never ceasing operation keeps the earth moving in its orbit. These forces are gravity and the centrifugal motion; the former being everywhere perpendicular to the surface and tending to the interior of the earth, while the latter acts perpendicularly to the axis of rotation and is directed to the exterior. As the intensity of the centrifugal force diminishes with the distance from the axis of rotation, it decreases from the equator to the poles, where it ceases. Now it is clear that these two forces are in direct opposition to each other in the equator alone, and that gravity is there diminished by the whole effect of the centrifugal force, whereas in every other part of the fluid, the centrifugal force is resolved into two parts, one of which being perpendicular to the surface diminishes the force of gravity; but the other, being at a tangent to the surface, urges the particles towards the equator where they accumulate till their numbers compensate the diminution of gravity which makes the mass bulge at the equator and become flattened at the poles.

2. If the earth's axis were horizontal to the plane of its orbit, there would occur a "new departure" which would startle the most of us from our propriety. The climates of the world would be revolutionized; the poles would be in the equator, and the present flattening there would give place to a bulging out of the earth where it is now flatted. The sun would beat with a burning, intense heat on both sides of its new equator, and where tropical productions are burning sandy deserts are now found immense masses of thick ribbed ice would appear and upon a scale vastly greater than anything we learn from the accounts of modern polar navigators. Human beings, as presently constituted, could hardly exist, and the whole earth would be divided between salamanders and great whales.

3. The climate of a country, or its condition with regard to heat and moisture, depends of course entirely upon the sun's rays—their *directness* and *degree of obliquity*. The more direct the greater the heat, as at the equator, from which point they gradually become more oblique and consequently the heat diminishes in like proportion.

4. The best way of explaining or understanding such questions is to consider the spherical form of the earth in connection with light. Take any small spherical body which can be held in one hand; mark upon it lines representing the tropics and polar circles; then hold it up to a candle directing the light as nearly as possible over the equater. The *arch of illumination* will pass half round the body extending from pole to pole. Incline it gradually until you reach the northern tropic, and while *the arch of illumination* has its center in that point, it will be found that the circumference of said circle then extends 23½ degrees beyond the north pole. The same in regard to the southern hemisphere. If the inclination of the earth were 30 degrees instead of 23½, the polar circles would then be 30 degrees from the poles; the frigid *zone* would be 30 degrees in extent, the temperate 30, and the torrid 60.

5. By accurate *measurement* it is found that from the equator to the pole a terrestrial meridian is an ellipse. Thus practice confirms theory and proves the correctness of Newton's deductions in regard to the figure of the earth. But if it is wanted to know the length of a degree of longitude to any distance from the equator, it may be stated that the distance between any two meridians on the equator is to the distance between the same meridians on any parallel of latitude, as the number of miles contained in one degree of the equator is to the number of miles contained in one degree of that parallel of latitude; but the distance on the equator between those meridians is to the distance on the parallel of latitude between the same meridians as the number of degrees in that distance is to the number of degrees of equal length in the other; therefore the number of degrees on the equator between any two meridians is to the number of degrees of equal length between the same meridians in any parallel of latitude as the number of

geographical miles in one degree of the equator is to the number of geographical miles in one degree of that parallel of latitude. Thus, in the latitude of 40°, the distance between two meridians which differ in longitude 15° measured by the quadrant of altitude is 11½°, nearly. Then from what has been demonstrated, 15°:11½°::60m:48 miles; likewise alternately and considering the numbers abstractly 15:60::11½:46, but 15:60::1:4; therefore 1:4::11½:46; hence 11½ × =46 × 1=46 the number of geographical miles contained in one degree of longitude in the latitude of 40°. And the number of geographical miles multiplied by 1.15 will give the statute miles, because 60:69 ::1:1.15.

6. In elementary books of astronomy it is generally said that the earth turns on its axis from west to east in 24 hours; but the truth is that it turns on its axis in 23 hours, 56 minutes, 4 seconds, making about 366 revolutions in 365 days, or a year. The natural day would always consist of 23 hours, if the earth had no other motion than that on its axis; but while the earth has revolved eastward once round its axis, it has advanced nearly one degree eastward in its orbit. To illustrate this, suppose the sun to be upon any particular meridian at 12 o'clock on any day; in 23 hours, 56 minutes, 4 seconds, afterwards, the earth will have performed one entire revolution; but it will at the same time have advanced nearly one degree eastward in its orbit, and consequently that meridian which was opposite to the sun the day before will be now one degree westward of it; therefore the earth must perform something more than one revolution before the sun appears again on the same meridian; so that the time from the sun's being on the meridian on any day, to its appearance on the same meridian the next day, is 24 hours.

The change in the position of the poles with regard to the sun, causes the variations in the lengths of days and nights, and the different seasons of the year, but this can best be illustrated by a *diagram.*

7. The polar circles are placed where they are to correspond with the tropics. By considering what has already been said in regard to the *circle of illumination* (question 4th) the reason will easily be understood.

Thousands of years ago, a celebrated Hebrew poet wrote "great and manifold are thy works, O Lord, in wisdom hast thou made them all;" and the sentiment is equally appropriate now, notwithstanding the great progress in science and knowledge since the time of the son of Jesse. True science and genuine reverence and devotion always go together. The wisest philosophers that have ever lived would have been consulted in vain in regard to the best mode of suspending the earth, so as to afford the "greatest good to the greatest number." Infinite wisdom alone could do that; and we are best employed when seeking to gather if but a few pebbles on the limitless shores of the great ocean of truth. G. H.

BUFFALO COUNTY.

INSTITUTES.

BY DORA CLARKE, NEOSHA, DODGE CO.

We observed in your January number an article from George Harper in reference to the practical benefit of institutes to teachers of actual schools (not the suppositious, model schools, with perfect pupils). It reminds us of similar points in an institute which we attended not long since.

The institute was not without many good features. The number of teachers present was large, the attendance regular, the punctuality well observed; but there was great lack of expression.

The teachers were not called upon to advance any *new* ideas; they were not allowed an opportunity of gaining aid from their fellow-teachers by learning their experience in the manner of teaching different branches; in obtaining the respect of their pupils; or in governing refractory ones. These things were taken for granted, and all children were supposed to be already brought under submission; to have been exactly alike in their home influences and surroundings and to require but one, narrow rule and method to

cover all classes and dispositions and all branches of study.

There seemed to be no opening for the teacher, but each was expected to give the strictest attention to the forty-fifth utterance of the sound of a letter. To some of them this did not seem to prove sufficiently entertaining to hold their undivided attention; though they essayed to appear interested.

A query-box, for general, practical questions, was at the service of the teachers into which some problems in mental arithmetic were put, on the supposition that some of the members would show the best method of explaining such examples to pupils. The conductor very kindly solved them himself, in his own way, doubtlessly thinking that was all that was desired of him.

Is this the better way of teaching teachers how to teach? Is not the theory and *art* of teaching, as applied to the average district school overlooked? And might not the teachers learn more on this point from their fellow-teachers who have spent years in this field and who are capable of giving something original from their stores of experience, than from the professors who conduct the institute?

NEEDED LEGISLATION FOR OUR SCHOOLS.

No principle in the whole theory of government is to-day more thoroughly established in the policy of the leading nations than that which declares it to be the right and the duty of the State to secure the education of its citizens. Even John Stuart Mill and Herbert Spencer, the distinguished advocates of the *laissez faire* theory, make an exception in the matter of education, and would have the State make its powers felt among the schools. The old Jeffersonian idea that the best government governs least, has so far as popular education is concerned been slowly outgrown. Our theories have changed in response to the self asserting demands of common interest. No better illustration of this change could be given than is found in the history of the common school system of the State of New York. Our State now stands fully committed to the entire extent of the principle enunciated.

The State has the same right to control and manage its schools as to organize them. As the one right is accorded for the welfare of the State, so the other must be accorded that the State may *secure* from its schools the influences that are most vital. Further than this, to justify the State in taking one man's property to educate the children of another, it is its duty to see that the money intrusted to its hands is not wasted; that the instruction given is such as will contribute most to the general good.

In considering the proper scope, therefore, of legislation for the regulation of schools, we may start from the position that it is the bounden duty of the State to so control its schools as to secure the results and objects for which they are maintained. If then our present system is in any way inadequate in its instrumentalities or results, the strong arm of the law which compels its support should be involved to the same extent in securing its efficiency. Keeping this proposition in view we shall briefly consider our State system of schools with reference to some of the tests which may be applied to every system of education.

First. Does it make adequate provision for securing competent instructors? In the teacher centres every interest of the school. If popular education is the corner-stone upon which the structure of the State must rest, as we are fond of saying it is, certainly those who are to carve and shape that stone must not be bunglers. It is the growing sentiment of all earnest educators that our present system fails to make anything like adequate provision for the professional training of a supply of teachers, or for duly testing their qualifications. Ninety-five per cent. of our teachers enter the school room without any previous special training for their work. The delicate task of instruction is intrusted to those who have never studied the laws of mind and its development, and to whom the philosophy of teaching is something unheard of. Bunglers are allowed to trifle with unfolding human-

ity. Boys and girls are set to do the work of men and women. There is no restriction upon the power of granting licenses; no standard of literary qualifications, age, or experience required for the different grades of certificates is prescribed by any competent authority. Those to whom is granted the power of licensing find themselves on entering their office without a rule to guide or a law to restrain them; without a single record from predecessors of the success or failure of those teachers who will shortly ask to have their licenses renewed; without the means of even knowing who or how many hold certificates. The indifferent and incompetent fix no standard for certificates and license without regard to qualifications. Or if the commissioner is really conscientious, the best teachers have to be subjected to the life-long annoyance of petty examinations. Of course, teaching can hardly aspire to the dignity of a profession. The rank of the common school teacher in the common estimate is in many localities on a par with that of the common laborer. The great need of more efficient teaching is echoed from every part of the State by those who have the opportunity for observation. Our educational necessities call for legislation providing for and requiring of all those who teach in the public schools, some special training for their work; placing such restrictions on the power of granting licenses as shall protect our schools from the disastrous results of unskilled labor; holding teachers to a rigid standard of qualifications.

In another paper, we shall inquire whether our system provides for the efficient supervision of its schools; whether it has coherence in its several parts; and whether it secures the results and influences most vital to the State.—*Commissioner McMath, President of the N. Y. State Superintendents' and Commissioners' Association, in the Albany School Bulletin for March.*

A REMARKABLE natural teacher in Pennsylvania is described by *The New York Teacher*. This man, who was a shoemaker, had such unusual intelligence and information that the children of his village would gather around to listen to his talk. Presently, divers families surprised him by entreaties to teach their children, and upon his refusal, returned to the charge with the request on paper signed by every man and woman in the village. He accordingly began a school in a blacksmith's shop, and soon became so interested in his work that he had no thought of ending it. He became known, though not through advertisement, pupils were brought from a distance, a good school-house was built, and since 1820 he has educated 1,896 children from abroad. The elements of his success are stated to be a sincere interest in the welfare of every student placed under his charge, his enthusiasm for everything of a scientific character, and his desire and intention that his pupils shall really know what is brought before them. He spares no expense for apparatus drawings, and every kind of illustration, especially such as will entertain as well as sow the seeds of science.

A USEFUL ACCOMPLISHMENT.

I once heard the familiar ballad "Lord Ullin's Daughter" read with inimitable grace and pronounced effect by a little girl only seven years old, who had evidently drunk inspiration solely from her own feeling heart and quick intelligence. The pathos with which she uttered the words, "My daughter, O my daughter!" was indescribable and worthy of a finished artist. The inference is drawn, if art in its highest development most closely approximates nature, why may not a child left to the grace of its native simplicity, in reading as in other things, meet every requirement that the case demands? By leading a child to make overstrained, misdirected effort as much is lost as by leaving him to a total neglect. Teachers themselves should have a clear understanding of what good reading is before they attempt to train readers. That such training is demanded and desirable who can question that considers the pleasure and profit derivable from possessing the

accomplishment? Consider the additional charm added to the family-circle where a good reader becomes the daily center of attraction. Women especially should prize the economy of the arrangement whereby one pair of eyes can be made to do service for a dozen, and the time of one only be taxed in giving information to many. In such a circle, while the others were diligently plying their needles, I have seen the reader even employing her fingers knitting away for dear life while at the same time she was contributing to the entertainment of a roomful. What a boon the imprisoned invalid feels to have been conferred when a friend has been reading aloud in pleasant, cheering tones, thus cheating the long hours of their monotonous dreariness! In short the ability to read aloud acceptably is to be endowed with a faculty for doing good that is by no means to be despised. Nor is any one likely to repent of pains bestowed upon acquiring excellence in this fundamental branch of a first-rate English education.—*Home and School.*

LANGUAGES OF THE FUTURE.—It is estimated that after a considerable period the relative proportions of the principal languages of the world will stand as follows: English one thousand million, French one hundred million, Germany ninety million, and Russian one hundred and sixty million. Beyond that, of the two tongues of civilization, the race will lie between the English and the Russian, with the probability that English, with the exception of part of Northern Africa and Western, will become the language of that vast continent; that it will encroach upon the Spanish settlements of Mexico and of South America, supplanting or isolating them; that it will overspread Persia and Afghanistan and India beyond the Ganges, and enroach upon the Chinese and Japanese of the seaboard. The Russian will not go far beyond the great northern belt which Russia now embraces. It may gravitate down and supplant the Chinese upon the northern boundary of China, but the immobility and vitality of the vast numbers who speak that ancient tongue will prevent any marked inroads from the Sclavonic. The three great languages of the future will be English, Russian, and Chinese, with English far in the lead. German and French will be cultivated as Greek and Latin are now—the one for its elegance, the other for its strength and its literature. Italian and Spanish will be mere Romance dialects, almost unknown beyond Spain and Italy.

A COURSE OF STUDY.

Prof. J. W. Harris, in an address before the State Teachers' Association of Missouri, on "The Relations of Common Schools to High Schools and Colleges," proposed the following course of study which has a rather metaphysical tone, but Mr. Harris is a metaphysical writer. He also utters a timely note of warning:

The realization of a course of study that will meet the wants of common schools and colleges alike is not hard to sketch. There is no necessity of a wide separation between a classical and a general course, the one designed as a preparation for a higher education, and the other as a preparation for the duties of practical life. What is best for culture is also best in the general education demanded in our schools.

In laying out the course of study, we must bear in mind the twofold division of the science of nature into the science of organic and that of inorganic nature, and the threefold division of the science of man into those of theoretical, practical, and æsthetical man. The course of study in all its stages, from the lowest up to the highest, should have at all times each of these five divisions represented. Thus the district school course, of eight years, will present under the

Head of Inorganic Nature—Arithmetic.

Head of Organic Nature—Geography.

Head of Theoretical Man—Grammar.

Head of Practical Man—History and Constitution.

Head of Æsthetic Man—Literature of the Readers.

Oral lessons in natural science, progressively arranged so as to make three circular movements in the district school

course, I deem essential. Drawing for the cultivation of the hand and eye is the only industrial study (directly so, at least) legitimate for the common school course.

The High School course, including the next four years, being respectively the ninth, tenth, eleventh and twelfth years of the course, will continue these five departments as follows:

First year—Inorganic Nature—Algebra.

Theoretical Man—Practical and æsthetical. } Latin, English, or German Analysis, Rhetoricals.

Second year—I—Geometry and Natural Philosophy.
~~Second year~~—II—Physiology.
~~Second year~~—III—Latin and Greek or German.
~~Second year~~—IV—General History.
~~Second year~~—V—Rhetoricals.

Third year—I—Trigonometry and Chemistry.
~~Third year~~—II—Botany and Zoology.
~~Third year~~—III—Latin and Greek, or French or German.
~~Third year~~—IV—Civil Government.
~~Third year~~—V—English Literature.

Fourth year—I—Analytical Geometry and Chemistry.
~~Fourth year~~—II—Geology or Astronomy.
~~Fourth year~~—III—Latin and Greek, or French or German.
~~Fourth year~~—IV—Moral Philosophy.
~~Fourth year~~—V—Shakspeare or select authors.

Considerable election should be allowed in the last two years of this course, but the symmetry of the course should be preserved by requiring that each of the five departments be represented by some branch of study selected. Too many lessons per diem (three, or at most four are sufficient) should be avoided by limiting the length of time in which a given study is pursued to a portion of a year. But Latin should be obligatory for two years of the High School course; physical geography, natural philosophy, geometry, algebra, general history, English literature obligatory for one year.

To correspond with this course the college should require of its candidates for admission a thorough elementary examination in physical geography, natural philosophy, general history and English literature, in addition to the usual Latin, Greek and mathematics. But even if the college makes no change in its requirements for admission, the above high school course will fit its pupils to enter well prepared and with a symmetrical culture strong in all points to comprehend and appreciate what the college course has to give. If the college modified its course to suit this public high school preparation, it could well afford to make its last two years a course in the philosophy of literature, of art, of history, and of the methodology in the several sciences, as well as give an extended course in the history of philosophy itself. And this modification of its course we may well concede that our time demands. The philosophical standpoint of natural science is, and has been at all times, pantheistic. Ascending from the contemplation of nature, our Tyndalls, and Huxleys, and Spencers, and Bains, and Carpenters, and Drapers, like the Arabian physicians of the Middle Ages, Avicenna and Averrhoes, fail to recognize in man a self-determined, immortal principle. They find in the phenomena of mind only the correlation of material forces, and personality itself is only a fleeting manifestation of the energy of organic conditions. There is no individual immortality for you and me, and no personal First Cause—no real (but only a seeming) freedom in the human will. Viewed from this standpoint, all human institutions, family, society, state—art, religion, science, are all founded on subjective illusions. The race of man is a succession of frail, brittle bubbles, rising on the sea of time, and breaking into nothing.

That the Sphinx enigma of this scepticism confronts us and demands a new solvent word or penalty of death to our spiritual existence, is the most serious of all realities in this hour. The colleges and universities, with their faculties devoted to the theoretic consideration of man and nature, have this boding theme to ponder; and, if they prove equal to the occasion, I am sure that for the next century something else will be taught in those institutions of learning than the dry husks of traditional seed-corn of thought.

If they prove unequal to the task, and if the challenge of the Saracenic Pantheists of our time, as they pour down over the Pyrenees of natural science into the domain of Christian civilization, arouse no Charles Martels in our colleges, then we know well whither we drift. From materialism and its denial of self-determined spirit, whether as divine or human personality, the soul takes refuge in mysticism and gross superstition, and we may look for an unreasoning tide of reaction, tending to such an extreme of bigotry and ecclesiastic interference in our social and political affairs as we have not witnessed since the days of Cotton Mather, or even the fires of Smithfield.

AGASSIZ.

Agassiz was a poor man. He began to form his museum with no resource but his small salary of $1500, and alway dependent chiefly upon the gifts of his friends to carry forward the enterprise, and these have been liberal indeed, for during his last year he had $100,000 to expend.

But while he gladly gave himself to the cause of education, he by no means encouraged the idea that teachers should not be well paid.

He recognized and insisted upon the fact that it requires a large expenditure to fit for the business and a constant and endless expense to keep up with the times, and that consequently teachers ought to demand much higher pay than they usually receive.

He also urged another point as essential to professional success; that teachers should not be overworked and should not attempt to teach what they do not thoroughly know.

To carry out these things would require a great change in school directors and tax-payers, but it ought to be done. There are costly follies and extravagancies enough, both in public and private affairs, which, if cut off, would furnish the means to pay teachers properly.

Doubtless many teachers are paid, all they can, with their present ability, earn, but many are under-paid, and it is a duty that the really good teacher owes to himself or herself, to his fellow teachers and to society, to refuse to work except for a fair compensation.

Many towns in this State, with palatial school buildings, are attempting to procure work that ought to be worth $2000 per year for $700 or $800, and work that ought to be worth $1000, for less than $400.

It is about time to abandon the ridiculous notion that teachers are a kind of missionaries who should work for nothing and board themselves, or, perhaps, board around.

They ought to be missionaries indeed, but, in this age of improvement, efficient work cannot be done without proper and continuous preparation, and this takes time and money and a great deal of both.

Again, while his life was devoted to natural science, he did not despise the classics. He himself had a thorough classical training, and owed to it much of his success as a lecturer and thinker.

In regard to co-education, his views were in harmony with those of advanced educators. He said that in establishing the school at Penikese, many questions had to be determined, one of which was the admission or rejection of ladies. Now there were gentlemen for whose opinion he had a very great respect, and whose views upon thie subject he did not know, therefore he did not ask them, but settled it himself; consequently, of the fifty admitted, seventeen were ladies.

During the first week occurred an event which perhaps furnished him with an opportunity to give an *object lesson* in school discipline; at any rate, it showed clearly his views of the matter.

There had been admitted several young men yet in college at Harvard or Amherst, and imbued with the foolish notions and prejudices of eastern colleges in regard to co-education and college discipline.

One night, after all had retired, these collegians, thoughtlessly carrying out the things in which they had been educated, created an unusual disturbance, calculated to render the ladies decidedly uncomfortable.

On the second morning thereafter, at breakfast, Agassiz rose and said *that five young men had shown themselves unfit to share the privileges of the school, and in one hour a boat would be ready to convey them from the island.*

The announcement fell like a thunderbolt from a clear sky. Then was there hurrying to and fro; for, while few favored the disgraceful outrage that had been perpetrated, many, including some college professors, who were present as students, were so possessed with the traditions of college life, that they could not at once appreciate the position.

Petitions, arguments and promises could not prevail. The young men went, never to return, *and not another ungentlemanly act occurred upon the island.*

How simple will college and school discipline become, when teachers will refuse to teach except where they can have the power to exclude those who, through laziness or misconduct, are a constant tax upon the teacher's strength, and a constant cause of corruption and demoralization to those who would be otherwise studious and attentive!

If it be asked, "what shall be done with the idle and vicious thus proposed to be thrown out of school?" we reply: "First, most parents will endorse the sentiment that it is not worth while to risk a large amount of good material for the sake of attempting to save a little that is poor; and, secondly, provide for them a reform school, where the appliances and discipline may be suited to their peculiar needs."

Were this plan carried out inexorably, many, who are now incorrigibly *lazy, careless, disorderly or rowdyish,* would suddenly discover within themselves powers before unknown, and develop into orderly, studious students.

The noblest and highest quality in the character of Agassiz was not his wonderful power of perception and reasoning; not his indomitable perseverance and industry; not his easy, and yet condensed diction as a speaker, nor even his great-hearted and child-like simplicity, it was rather his enthusiastic devotion to truth. This kept him from being carried away into the wild vagaries of unsubstantial theories like so many of our scientific thinkers.

He always insisted that his students should see things as they *are,* and not as some pet theory might *require* them to be.

This was the source of his great success as an investigator, and the secret of his skill in inspiring his pupils with zeal for their work.

No man who is not thoroughly loyal to truth can be a successful scientist.

Nature yields not up her rarest secrets except to the truthful questioner.

Lastly, he was profoundly reverent.

To him, every specimen, whether bird, fish, insect or reptile, was a sentient being, a piece of the handiwork of God, bearing the signet stamp of Omnipotence and Omniscience in all parts of its curious and perfect structure.

His laboratory was a sacred place—a very Temple of the Most High.—ELLIOT WHIPPLE, *in the Chicago Teacher.*

ANSWER TO ASTRONOMICAL QUESTIONS.

BY PROF. ALBERT WHITFORD, MILTON COLLEGE.

The following is an answer to the questions found in the March number of the JOURNAL, page 108:

LENGTH OF DAYS ON THE EARTH.

An observer at the equator of the earth sees the north pole of the heavens in the horizon, and all the heavenly bodies to rise and set at right angles to the latter plane. All these bodies in their apparent diurnal motion revolve about the axis of the earth and, therefore, the horizon of the equator, since it is parallel to this axis, bisects their orbits. The sun and every star is one-half of the time above and one-half of the time below the horizon, and the longest and shortest day is exactly twelve hours.

But were the observer to travel northwards, the plane of his horizon would be depressed below the north pole of the heavens in proportion to his latitude, and, in latitude forty degrees north, this plane would make with the axis of the earth an

angle of forty degrees. In this case none of the daily orbits of the heavenly bodies would be bisected by the horizon except those in the equator; the orbits of bodies north of the equator would be more above the horizon than below,—the greater their distance from the equator, the greater this difference,—and the orbits of those bodies within forty degrees of the north pole would be always in sight.

So the length of the days and the nights depends upon two elements, the inclination of the horizon of the observer to the axis of the earth, or, what is the same thing, the latitude of the place, and the declination of the sun, or its distance from the equator.

Let the first element be represented by l, and the second by d, the formula for computing the semi-diurnal arc, or one-half of the day is the following:

$$\text{Cos. } \tfrac{1}{2}\, arc = -\tan l \times \tan d.$$

CHANGE OF SEASONS.

If the earth should, in its annual motion, revolve around the sun in the plane of the equator, there would be no change of seasons. The days and nights would be of equal length; there would be perpetual summer near the equator and perpetual winter near the poles. But suppose the orbit of the earth to be inclined to the equator thirty degrees, the sun once each year would be directly over the head of an observer at a place thirty degrees north of the equator, and its rays at this time would shine ninety degrees north of him, or thirty degrees beyond the north pole, and ninety degrees south of him, or thirty degrees short of the south pole. In that case, a zone thirty degrees wide around the north pole would be illuminated day and night, but the same zone around the south pole would be beyond the direct rays of the sun. These would be the frigid zones. The torrid zone would extend thirty degrees north and thirty degrees south of the equator. This portion of the globe would receive the vertical rays of the sun twice in a year. The temperate zones would extend from latitude of thirty degrees to latitude of sixty degrees. This part of the world would never receive the vertical rays of the sun, and would never be beyond its oblique rays.

But if the earth's orbit should be perpendicular to the equator, or, in other words, should be in its axis, the sun would pass from pole to pole and would be vertical at every place between these poles twice a year. When over the north pole its rays would extend only to the equator; places south of the equator would experience a long night, from twenty-four hours to six months according to the latitude. In this case there would be but two zones, alike in every respect, but alternating in their conditions, neither torrid, temperate or frigid, alone, but having, at different periods of the year, the characteristics of each of these.

ELLIPTICITY, LENGTH OF DEGREES OF LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE.

The difference in direction between two vertical lines one at the equator and the other 68.7 miles north is one-three hundred and sixtieth part of a circumference of a circle. This is the length of a degree of latitude at the equator. In middle latitudes, it is about 69 miles in length. At the poles the degree of latitude is 69.4 miles long. These measurements are found from the coast surveys in Europe and America. It is true, no one has measured the length of a degree at the poles, but the rate of change is determined from measurements in other latitudes. These lengths of degrees show that the earth is more curved at the equator and less at the poles and give the elements for finding the equatorial and the polar radius of the earth. The former is 3963.35 miles long and the latter 3949.88 miles.

The length of a degree of longitude measured on the equator is 69.17 miles. It may be computed as follows:

$$1^\circ \text{ of long.} = \frac{2\pi R}{360} = \frac{2 \times 3.141592 \times 3963.35 \text{ m}}{360}$$

To find the length of a degree of longitude for any latitude measured on its parallel of latitude, use the following formula: $1^\circ \text{ of long.} = \dfrac{2\pi R \times \cos.\, l.}{360.}$ This

formula would be strictly true, if the earth were spherical, but since it is spheroidal, the values of the radius and the latitude must be reduced to be adapted to this fact. Let l' represent the reduced latitude, a the equatorial radius, b the polar radius and r the radius of the earth for any latitude; then the values l' and r may be found, as follows: $\tan l' = \frac{b^2}{a^2} \tan l$, and $r^2 = \frac{a^2 b^2}{a^2 \sin^2 l' + b^2 \cos^2 l'}$. These values of l' and r substituted in the formula above will give very nearly the length of a degree measured on any parallel of latitude.

AN ANSWER.—The following answer to Problem 2, on page 105 of the March number of the JOURNAL, was put in type for the April number, but crowded out:

THIRD ANSWER.—Factor the given product and divide the factors into two sets, the product of one of which shall equal that of the other minus the number first given.

2) 112	$7 \times 2 = 14$
2) 56	$2 \times 2 \times 2 = 8$
2) 28	$14 - 6 = 8$
2) 14	*Ans.*
7	L., *Oconomowoc.*

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENCY.

What should the County Superintendency be? How may it be rendered most efficient? Of these great educational problems no State has yet reached a fully satisfactory solution. In view of the experience of more than thirty States the following solution is submitted:

1. *Status.*—The County Superintendency should be an *employment*, not an office. It should be strictly professional and similar to city superintendency. Making it an office involves insurmountable difficulties. Superintendents should be employed and dismissed on precisely the same plan that other teachers are employed and dismissed. That the Superintendency should be an employment will not be questioned. Making it such is doubtless the key to its popularity and efficiency.

2. *Term.*—Four years is probably the most desirable term. A good Superintendent should be retained at least two terms. A poor one should be dismissed at once. The longer a good Superintendent is retained the better. As with teachers, frequent changes preclude success. In four States the term is four years; in seven, three years; in fifteen, two years; and in three, one year. Short terms are fatal for two reasons: First-class men will not accept; and the time is too short to mature and work out a plan. Making the Superintendency an employment for a term of four years will command the best ability and produce the best results.

3. *Salary.*—The salary should be sufficient to secure the entire time and energies of the best educators. Railroad Superintendents are paid salaries varying from $5,000 to $15,000 annually. These are wonderful men. Cities pay from $2,000 to $5,000 in order to secure the best talent. Harris, of St. Louis, Ricoff, of Cleveland, Pickard, of Chicago, Hancock, of Cincinnati, Kidle, of New York, etc., etc., are the peers of our greatest statesmen, attorneys and theologians. To direct the school work of a county requires the highest ability. The salary must be sufficient to command such ability. Pennsylvania pays from $800 to $3,000, averaging $1,163. The salaries in New York average over $1,000. In these States good men are secured and good results obtained. But the average salary does not equal that paid in other fields of activity requiring *less* ability and *less* labor. In other States the efficiency of the Superintendency is ever found to correspond with the salary paid. In my judgment less than an average salary of $1,200 will not command the requisite talent.

By making the Superintendency an *employment* for the term of *four* years at an average salary of $1,200, the best men in the country may be secured for Superintendents, and each dollar expended for educational purposes may be *doubled* in value.

4. *Employment and Removal.*—Here we find the cause of failure or the key to success. Five plans are being tried: In sixteen States the people elect; in three, the county courts appoint; in five, county school officers elect; in two, the State Superintendents nominate and the Governor appoints; in three the State boards of education elect.

(*a.*) Election by the people, as in the employment of teachers, is the worst possible plan. In no State does it give satisfaction.

(*b.*) Appointment by county courts is decidedly objectionable.

(*c.*) Election by the school officers of the county gives good results. The directors in Pennsylvania and the trustees in Indiana elect. Though often not the best, good selections are generally made.

(*d.*) Appointment and removal by the State Superintendent with the consent of the State Senate has much to commend it.

(*e.*) Election and removal by an efficient State Board of Educators, is, doubtless, the best possible plan. Let the Board consist of the State Superintendent, the Presidents of the State University and State Normal Schools, the Superintendents of the six largest cities, and a leading educator from each Congressional district in the State. The professional standing of the members of the Board would guarantee the selection of the best men, and the summary removal of inefficient superintendents. The Board would not be restricted by county or State lines. As in the selection of teachers, qualifications not residence should determine the choice. This plan impresses us with the force of an intuition. It could not fail to give each county a first-class Superintendent.

5. *Qualifications.*—To be eligible to the position of County Superintendent, the person proposed should be:

(*a.*) A good scholar and efficient teacher.

(*b.*) He should possess a high degree of organizing and managing power.

(*c.*) He should be energetic and devoted.

(*d.*) He should be in vigorous health.

(*e.*) He should hold a first-class State certificate.

The law should specify these qualifications.

DUTIES OF THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT.

The duties of the County Superintendent are many, and each duty is of great importance. Upon the faithful discharge of these duties depends to a remarkable extent the progress of the schools.

1. *Adapt and Execute.*—A skillful and determined County Superintendent is needed to adapt and execute the plans of the State Superintendent. Without such aid the best State Superintendent is comparatively powerless. The State Superintendent is the directing head, the County Superintendent the executing arm. Wherever the County Superintendency is recognized as the right arm of a public system we find marvelous progress.

2. *Inspect Expenditures.*—We need a business County Superintendent:

To audit the accounts of school boards.

To see that all school money is judiciously expended.

To carefully guard all school funds. The amount he can thus *save* will far more than pay his salary.

3. *Procure Statistics.*—An industrious County Superintendent is needed to procure and tabulate full and accurate statistics. Without such an agency the statistics usually procured are so defective as to be almost worthless. Few seem to realize the immense importance of correct school statistics.

4. *Grounds and Buildings.*—A sensible and influential County Superintendent is needed to aid in the selection of school grounds, the erection of buildings and the selection of furniture and apparatus. Probably more than half of the school houses are badly located, badly constructed, badly furnished, badly heated and ventilated and chronically in bad repair. Suitable out-houses are rare. Few schools have the necessary apparatus. These gigantic evils affect to an alarming extent the health and progress of the 10,000,000 pupils attending our 200,000 schools, costing $70,000,000 annually. A capable County Superintendent can produce a

rapid improvement. The resulting benefits can hardly be overestimated.

5. *Course of Study.*—Each county needs an able County Superintendent to develop a well digested course of study. The graded schools of our cities are the best in the world. Outside of these the educational progress is slow indeed. The schools in the rural districts of most States are in a deplorable condition. Teachers change, and pupils are required to go over the same ground year after year. Full half the time is thus *wasted.* Work of little importance diplaces the practical and the useful. An able County Superintendent would soon effect an absolute revolution. The teachers might change, but their successors would move right on. The pupils would be ambitious to accomplish the work assigned for each year. Step by step the mighty army of youth would move up through the district schools, the high schools, the colleges and the universities to lives of enlarged usefulness and happiness.

6. *Programme.*—We need a systematic County Superintendent to see that each teacher works out and follows a good programme. A programme providing employment for each pupil during each moment of the school day should be furnished the County Superintendent within two weeks after the school opens. It is a melancholy fact that teachers generally do not have well digested programmes. The resulting loss to the pupils is fearful.

7. *Examination of Teachers.*—There is a pressing need of a thorough County Superintendent to examine teachers. The teacher's certificate as generally given is a sham—a mere guess.

In two days of eight hours an expert Superintendent may determine the qualifications of about twelve teachers. The oral and the written examinations should occupy about equal time. By dividing the candidates into two sections and by having an assistant to manage the written examination, the Superintendent may give all his time to the oral work. He can first test the scholarship, and power to explain; next, he can have each conduct a recitation for a short time, and thus test his ability to teach. A certificate given after such an examination would mean, "Examined and found qualified." To protect a county against the curse of incompetent teachers is of the utmost importance. A thorough County Superintendent alone can be relied on to do this work.

8. *Practical Teaching.*—A practical County Superintendent is needed to see that practical work is done by each teacher. A great revolution is demanded here. Take a few cases:

(*a.*) The right use of the *dictionary* is fundamental; yet probably not half of our teachers know how to use the dictionary. At a recent institute in Iowa, of seventy-five teachers, but three could determine the correct pronunciation of words, with Webster open before them. In Illinois at an institute of two hundred members, but ten were found able to determine the correct pronunciation of words. At a recent institute in Missouri, the learned principal of a graded school proved that "*ob*-sta-cle" should be pronounced "ob-*sta*-cle." If teachers are so defective, what can we expect of the pupils?

(*b.*) Letter writing deserves special attention. Of hundreds of letters received annually from teachers, few are even passable. The form, the construction, the use of capitals, the punctuation and the spelling are often horrible. Each child should at least be trained to write a respectable letter. This can well be done in connection with language lessons and grammar. As a part of examination the applicant for a teacher's certificate should always be required to write a letter to the examiner.

(*c.*) Book-keeping ought to be taught in connection with arithmetic. It *can* be done without loss of time. Each pupil needs to know something of the science of accounts.

(*d.*) Drawing is conceded to be a most useful and desirable art. None need it more than the teacher. It can be taught successfully by alternating it with penmanship. Yet drawing is ignored in nearly all our schools.

(*e.*) Much of history and government can be taught in connection with geography. The ignorance on these subjects is fearful.

(*f.*) Morals and manners should be systematically inculcated in connection with each hour's work. That they are not is sadly evident.

From these examples may be estimated the mighty work of a *practical* County Superintendent.—J. BALDWIN, *in Amer. Journal of Education.*

National Progress through Intellectual Culture.

The following eloquent paragraphs from Dr. Draper's "Civil Policy in America" we presume to be new to most of our readers. Those who may have already seen them will appreciate the pleasure of reperusal.—EDS.

Every one is penetrated with the conviction that for social advancement to pursue the right direction, and to be pressed forward at the highest speed, it must be controlled by intelligence. Hence the public prosperity is considered to depend on education. There can be no doubt that this is a very high and noble conception. It establishes an intrinsic difference between the people of Europe and the people of America.

In Europe the attempt has been made to govern communities through their morals alone. The present state of that continent, at the close of so many centuries, shows how great the failure has been. In America, on the contrary the attempt is to govern through intelligence. It will succeed.

From the American principle, it follows that whoever seeks the improvement of his fellow-men, the ennobling of the community among whom he lives, or the true glory of the nation, can best accomplish his purpose by spreading forth the light of knowledge, and strengthening and developing the public understanding.

For more than a thousand years the moral system has been tried in Europe. Its agent, the ecclesiastic, was animated by intentions that were good, by perseverance unwearied, by a vigorous energy. The failure is attributable, not to shortcomings in him, but to intrinsic defects in his method; though on that continent, in a very imperfect manner, in later times the other method has spontaneously and with much resistance made itself felt; a wonderful result is beginning to be apparent. The apprehension entertained by many good men in former times, that if the mind be instructed the morals may be injured, has proved to be unfounded. Men are better in proportion as they are wiser. In whatever direction we look, we see the improvement. The physical man is more powerful, the intellectual man more perfect, the moral man more pure. For the poor, in the midst of all this social activity, this business energy, charity is none the less overflowing; for him who wishes to improve his life there is certain to be encouragement.

Whoever in America desires to better his fellowmen must act by influencing their intellect. If he wishes to see no idle man and no poor man in the land, he must take care that there shall be no ignorant man. Ignorance is not, as in the old times they used to say, the mother of devotion; she is the mother of superstition and misery.

If we wish to know how we may best clear from this continent the superabundant forests that encumber it—how we may best lay the iron rail and put the locomotive upon it—how we may most profitably dig the abounding metals from their veins—how we may instantaneously communicate with our most distant towns—how we may cover the ocean with our ships—how we may produce a sober, industrious, healthy, moral population, we shall find our answer in providing universal instruction. That spontaneously provides occupation. The morality of a nation is the aggregate of the morality of individuals. A lazy man is necessarily a bad man; an idle is necessarily a demoralized population.

In such provisions for the rising generations there is a special interest which ought never to be overlooked. On many occasions social requirements press with melancholy severity on the female sex. Women can not engage in the rough con-

flicts of life. Few are the occupations to which they can with propriety turn, and even in those few, to the disgrace of men be it said, they are jostled, and crushed, and crowded out. Yet often the friendless woman has duties to perform for herself and those dependent on her of the highest kind. Society inexorably binds her with all its rules and usages, yet society too often yields her but a feeble help. No more is wanted than freedom for her hands, no more than opportunity, yet how often is that freedom, that opportunity denied! How many of the fearful evils of graat cities may be directly traced to the compulsory, the profitless inaction of young women!

I repeat again the great truth, that the only method of ameliorating the condition of men is by acting on their intelligence; even their morals must be guided by their understanding. This principle has been carried into practical effect by a race whom we affect to despise. Ages ago, in China, they had passed through the various experiments which the Western nations are now so seduously trying; and ages ago they came to the conclusion that government, to be effectual, satisfactory, permanent, must operate through the public intelligence. In that they follow nature. In our supercilious conceit we laugh at the Chinese; his bodily formation and grotesque manners are topics of merriment to us. We say he opens his eyes vertically, like a pair of folding doors, our own opening horizontally, as properly fixed windows ought to do. We exult in the glory of a luxuriant beard spread broadly over the breast, and ridicule him who, having none, ties up his long hair into a tail, and lets it hang down his back. But the wisdom of a man does not depend on these decorations being either in front or behind. If we, knowing very imperfectly the ideas of the old man of the Mongols, irreverently set him down as a superannuated dotard, he, in an equally imperfect way, learning of our proceedings in statecraft and our anarchy of creeds, regards us as "outside barbarians," and, judging from the rude violence with which we seek to make him recognize our acquaintance, as "red-headed devils."

But this supremely solemn old man has done something that we can not help seeing, no matter in what way we open our eyes. He has found out the means by which more than three hundred millions of men—more than ten times the population of the United States—more than one third of the human race, have been for ages kept in happiness, prosperity, and peace. Long ago he had accomplished the thing which we, on a smaller scale, are attempting. If we could surprise him into a moment's relaxation from the amenities of exquisite courteousness and from the artifices of infinite dissimulation—if we could coax from him his secret, this is what he would say: "Educate every body. In every child that is born, the state, as well as the parent, has a right. I compel all to go to school. I push forward the brightest of the children into academies, and from thence the boys who are distinguished above their fellow-boys by superior endowments I send to the college. From the new conflict of mind that there ensues I select the victors, and, transplanting them to active life, intrust to them the superintendence of districts. Those who have displayed capacity on that scale I promote to the government of provinces. They who approve themselves in the ordeal of that greater trial are relied upon as the counselors and guides of the Imperial authority at last. In China our ancestors organized the National Intellect; we honor learning above all other things. The road to greatness is open to him who has capacity to walk in it. Our educated are not our dangerous classes, but firm supporters of the state; and the result is, that we are the most numerous, in our internal affairs the most prosperous and the most contented nation of the earth."

That is the manner in which the Asiatics have resolved the great problem of stesmanship. The details might not answer to our Western life, but their example and its success may well afford us a topic of profound meditation.

IN SCHOOL DAYS.

The lines below are as good as when Whittier first wrote them, and call up many fond reminiscences:

IN SCHOOL DAYS.

Still sits the school-house by the road,
A ragged beggar sunning;
Around it still the sumachs grow,
And blackberry vines running.

Within, the master's desk is seen,
Deep-scarred by raps official;
The warping floor, the battered seats,
The jack-knife's carved initial;

The charcoal frescoes on the wall;
Its door's worn sill betraying
The feet that, creeping slow to school,
Went storming out to playing!

Long years ago a winter sun
Shone over it at setting;
Lit up its western window-panes,
And low eaves' icy fretting.

It touched the tangled golden curls,
And brown eyes full of grieving,
Of one who still her steps delayed
When all the school was leaving.

For near her stood the little boy
Her childish favor singled;
His cap pulled low upon a face
Where pride and shame were mingled.

Pushing with restless feet the snow
To right and left, he lingered,
As restlessly her tiny hands
The blue-chocked apron fingered.

He saw her lift her eyes; he felt
The soft hand's light caressing,
And heard the trembling of her voice,
As if her fault confessing.

"I'm sorry that I spelt the word,
I hate to go above you,
Because"—the brown eyes lower fell—
"Because, you see, I love you!"

Still memory to a gray-haired man
That sweet child-face is showing,
Dear girl! the grasses on her grave
Have forty years been growing!

He lives to learn, in life's hard school,
How few who pass above him
Lament their triumph and his loss,
Like her—because they love him.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

One of the hobbies ridden in certain quarters, is the abolition of corporal punishment in school. Its disuse, except in cases of absolute necessity, is of course desirable. But its prohibition is quite a different thing. "Moral suasion" is an excellent thing, and the teacher and school where no punishment is needed, are both to be greatly commended, but the knowledge that there *may* be punishment, has also an excellent moral effect. In the city of New York corporal punishment has been some time abolished, and what is the result?

The city superintendent complains of "a large class of vicious boys whom the public schools do not and cannot restrain, and yet who are permitted to pursue their lawless career . . . from school to school until they are pronounced 'incorrigible,' and then the doors of all schools are closed against them, after which they roam the streets until they too often find themselves in prison." * * * The discipline in the boys' schools has seriously deteriorated, and in consequence of the absorption of an unprecedentedly large part of their time and energy in simply maintaining order, hundreds of our experienced teachers, whose skill as principals or as class-teachers has been again demonstrated, are no longer able to secure results equal in quality and quantity to those of past years. The vital element of every true educational system, the discipline of the will by means of reasonable and effective restraint, is in many instances disappearing, or is virtually resolving itself into an appeal of the teacher, who is in the right, *to the forbearance of the pupil, who is in the wrong.* This new and unwholesome strain upon the nervous systems of the teachers is declared to be visibly "impairing their health and strength," and to be driving both them and the principals "into the employment of injudicious modes of enforcing obedience."

PERHAPS you have noticed, by the way, how a common-place adjective, when simply and truthfully applied, takes on and holds perennially a fresh and peculiar meaning. What could be more common-place than "admirable," "silent," "pious," "venerable," "great," "yellow," "blue," "primeval." Who would think that the application of these qualifications to names of persons, places, or things, could make epithets that time cannot outwear? And yet, this is the way we get the Admirable Crichton, William the Silent, Pious Æneas, the Venerable Bede, Peter the Great, the Yellow Tiber, the Blue Danube, the Forests Primeval, and a thousand undying phrases of prose and verse.—"*The Old Cabinet,*" *Scribner's for March.*

THE March number of the *Pennsylvania School Journal* says: "The new compulsory school law of the State of New York has been found so defective and the opposition to its enforcement so great that it is now pronounced a failure by its own friends. A few more such experiments, and the most short-sighted advocates of the doctrine that the state should compel parents to send their children to school under the penalty of fine and imprisonment, will be willing to accept a modification of it that will make it practical."

Then follows the letter we recently printed from the State Superintendent of Michigan, showing the total failure of the compulsory law in that state, and under this we read:

"What is true in Michigan is substantially true in every other state in which laws have been passed compelling children to attend school. In Massachusetts, Connecticut and perhaps in other states, under judicious management, some features of their compulsory laws have gone into effect and are doing good; but the 'fine and imprisonment' feature of these laws is everywhere worse than a dead-letter. The children among us who are growing up in ignorance must be educated, but we have evidently not yet found the right way to do it. The problem is an easy one in a monarchy, but how to solve it in a republic is the difficult question that now confronts us."

THE HALF-DAY PLAN has a strong advocate in Mr. Campbell, of Oakland, Cal. Butt this Superintendent has evidenced a spirit of fairness with the "public" in discussing school measures that is truly refreshing. The haughty style of "reminding the people of their duty" assumed by some superintendents in addressing their patrons, entitles them to be classed among the educational incurables. No amount of bumps and rebukes from the "graceless multitude" seems to bend their rigid forms from set phrases to actual facts. It is wisdom to give the public much credit for the princely munificence with which our free schools are supported. That too much is spent on domes and cornices, or that extravagance in other departments of political economy goes unrebuked, does not alter the fact that our country is liberal in the support of common schools. The money is not *well* spent when a poorly ventilated and poorly lighted room sits at the foot of a Bunker Hill monument, and worse still if the teacher is beggared, or cheap talent defeats education in the class room, because the money has been spent on spire or cupola. The people will hear and consider, but they will not drive.

We are inclined to believe that crowded primary departments might adopt the half-day plan with some advantages.

PLAIN TALK.—One of our county superintendents writes as follows:

"I wish you would say in the *Journal* that school officers should be elected for their ability or efficiency, or for their good sense, and not because 'it is Tom's turn,' or 'Dick wants it,' or 'Harry belongs to your party,' or your church, or married my wife's sister.

"That school directors have other duties than providing for impecunious male or female relatives.

"That a *good* teacher is *cheap*, and a *poor one dear* at any price.

"That babies should not always be sent to school to "get them out of the way," (for a good teacher may be an indifferent nurse) neither should pupils be kept at home to do chores.

"That a building so full of dirt, decay, disease, discomfort, disagreeableness and discouragement, as to be totally unfit for anything else, will not necessarily make a good school house.

"That simply paying a man's school tax will no more insure his children a good education than paying a minister tax will give him a warranty deed of heaven."—*Am. Jour. Education.*

IT IS conceded by *The Baltimore American* that if the State has the right to build school-houses and employ teachers, it has the right to compel attendance at the schools which it establishes. "If the

State," it adds, "taxes a rich man who has no children of his own in order to furnish a school for the benefit of his non-tax paying neighbor, who is blessed with a large family, we cannot see that it transcends its authority when it compels the father of these children to give them such opportunities of acquiring an education as his own circumstances will permit. The whole system of common school education is founded on the principle that the State is bound to do that which tends to the safety of society and promotes the public good. If this justifies the levying of taxes for the support of schools, it seems to us that it will also justify the compulsory attendance of such children as are not sent to private schools. Nevertheless we are bound to admit that in some communities such a law could not be enforced. Public opinion must be educated up to the proper mark before legislation of this character can be made effective."

THE teacher of to-day must be a live worker, not only, but thoroughly conversant with the great advancements that have been made in the art of instruction. He needs to know what the leading men in his profession think and say, to comprehend their plans and methods. He ought to be posted in all the current educational news, to be informed concerning text books, to keep pace with conventions and other assemblages and he should avail himself of that precise and definite knowledge of his art, with which he may be a useful and successful teacher, or lacking which he moves without confidence and labors without skill.

TRAINING, as well as instruction, is to be aimed at. Some may object that this assigns more to the teacher than really belongs to him. On the contrary, success in the ordinary course of teaching implies all this. Truthfulness, honesty, and self-denial are as needful in schools as in the regulation of the affairs of life. They must be secured by the preference of the children themselves, if the teacher is not to be daily hampered with the need for enforcing them by the exercise of authority in particular cases. Each successive day of school life must tend to develop the virtues of moral character among all the children, if teaching is to proceed with success. All educational appliances work at a disadvantage, when the efforts of the teacher are not supported by a basis of character in the scholars. Hence a great deal is done in the earliest stages of education, if a large amount of time is bestowed in training children in habits of self-government. The earlier it is begun the easier is the task; the more thoroughly it is done, the more rapid the progress in after years.—*Calderwood.*

THE ability to impart instruction is only a small part of a teacher's professional duty, particularly in the elementary schools. There is everything to be done in the cultivation of character; in the rooting out of bad habits, and the formation of new ones. There is to be developed truthfulness, unselfishness, obedience, order, promptness, neatness, confidence, caution. Indeed, the great work of the elementary teacher is the formation of correct habits. When this has been successfully done, not only is the future school success assured, but the foundation of all success has been securely laid.—*Miss Lathrop.*

THE *National Teachers' Monthly* says: "Children like to do better than to learn. Though all school work should have knowledge for its objective point, yet discipline cannot be entirely neglected; and the young teacher will often find it a good plan to set children at such work as making numerical tables, or copying from their readers, for the sake of keeping them busy and out of mischief. After control of the school is gained, however, such merely mechanical work is useless, ordering it done is a mark of shiftlessness on the teacher's part. By a little thought, and a little work placed on the blackboard before the opening of school, pupils can be kept busy with legitimate tasks, thus calling for thought and giving information, as well as keeping the school occupied."

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

Q. Can the supervisors of two towns embracing a joint district take territory from a third town and attach it to the joint district, the other board not consenting?

A. They have no such power. In order to accomplish the result, the board in the third town must detach the territory from the district to which it belongs, and then it can be attached to the joint district, a majority of each of these boards consenting. It does no harm if the order for detaching the territory is connected with that for attaching it to the joint district. It is the signatures of the board of the town losing the territory however which give validity to that part of the order.

Q. When a district is extinguished what is to be done with the dictionary—can one of the board lawfully keep it?

A. No, to do so is larceny or very much like it. The town board should "grant" it to some other district, or sell it and dispose of the proceeds as directed in section 16.

Q. When a district votes a special tax under sections 64—75, on what personal property is it to be collected, on that in the district when the tax is assessed, or at the time of the annual assessment in May?

A. On that which is in the district at the time the tax is assessed. The clerk will refer to the last assessment roll of the town for information. (Sec. 65.)

Q. The town board notified the clerk of our district of an intended alteration, but he neglected to notify the other members; the board proceeded to make the alteration; can it be considered legal?

A. It is not necessarily illegal. If the board were present and consented to the alteration it would not be illegal; if not present, it could not take effect for three months, and the want of notice and opportunity to make objections, would be reason for appeal perhaps.

UNDER THE TOWN SYSTEM.

Q. Can the town board form sub-districts with less than a certain number of school children?

A. The board is not restricted, by law, but *should* not make the sub-districts too small and thus increase expense for school-houses and teachers.

Q. Can each sub-district select its teacher and fix the wages to be paid?

A. A sub-district, except to elect its clerk, can do nothing more than to *recommend* as to these things. Its clerk is its representative, on the town board.

Q. Must each sub-district maintain school five months to draw school-money?

A. The sub-districts do not, as such, maintain any school. The schools are maintained by the town, by town school tax and such school money as is received. It is the duty of the town board to see that at least five months school is provided for in each sub-district. There is no power given to sub-districts to raise and expend money for school purposes separately from the provision made by the town. (A school might be lengthened out, as a private arrangement, perhaps by subscription or otherwise.) It is to be remembered that under this system, the town is the district, and the town board is the school board, with all the powers of an ordinary school board. (See sections 1 and 12, town system.)

THE SCHOOL BOARD.

Q. Can the school board allow the school house to be used for meetings, or for a German school?

A. Yes, since March 19, that power has been given them. The law is on page 170 of the April No. Of course such use should not be granted to the prejudice of the school.

Q. Can a school board buy any thing it pleases as school apparatus?

A. No, only such things as fairly come under that head and have been approved by the State or County Superintendent.

Q. I hired a teacher, as clerk, and we signed a contract for one year, but it was not signed by the other members. It was verbally agreed that if she did not give satisfaction she should vacate. She has taught two terms and now we wish her to leave, but she claims a right to teach the

year out. Can she oblige the board to keep her?

A. An agreement signed by one member of the board and a teacher is not a contract withing the meaning of the school law; but the other two members having heretofore made no objection to the employment of the teacher, she is entitled to compensation for services rendered up to this time. It does not follow that if she is notified by the board that her services are no longer desired, she can claim a right to teach the year out or damages from the district if not allowed to do so.

Q. Has one of the board a right to go to the school and make inquiry into a complaint made by a parent, the other two refusing to pay any attention to it? The parent said he would not send his child again until the difficulty was settled. Our clerk went and settled the matter satisfactorily to the parent and teacher for which he was censured by the other two members of the board. Did he do right or not?

A. It is quite proper for any member of the school board to visit the school, and to give his advice, if asked or needed. Whether the difficulty you speak of was of such a nature that a meeting of the board should have been called, could be better determined if its nature were known. This much may be said: individual members of the board should always be cautious about acting for the board and assuming that the other members will concur. Men are jealous of their prerogatives.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Q. Am I required, as a teacher, to report to the county superintendent if he does not send me blank reports?

A. Perhaps blanks were sent and miscarried. Ascertain about that fact, if you know blanks are furnished and reports expected. It is to be supposed that if a superintendent expects formal, monthly reports, he will have blanks printed for that purpose. The law, however, makes it the duty of the teacher to report in such form and manner as the superintendent may prescribe, and says nothing about blanks being furnished.

Q. Is not a girl 18 years of age entitled to attend school free, wherever she goes?

A. Her being 18 years of age does not give her any such right. Her legal residence is presumed to be with her father. There she has a right to attend school free, but not in other districts, unless there are peculiar circumstances in the case.

Q. Does an appeal lie from the action of a county judge in removing a district officer?

A. Not to the State Superintendent.

Q. In this county, school money raised by tax has not for several years been paid over by the county treasurer; cannot the school and drainage money be witheld at Madison, until this is done?

A. The State officers have no power to keep back money due to a county, for the reason given.

Q. An agent got two of our board, separately, to agree to take certain apparatus; will the district have to pay for it?

A. No, the said agent is probably a scamp, and knew better. Report him at headquarters and he will get a ticket-of-leave, if the firm is an honest one.

Q. Can a district vote a tax to pay lawyer's fees?

A. Under sub-sections *Twelfth* and *Eighth*, Sec. 19, this could be done, if such fees were a necessary part of expense incurred in a suit.

TEACHERS should study the dispositions of pupils, and learn how to call out and develop their minds. They should know how to classify pupils according to temperament and capabilities, and how to interest them in their studies. With such knowledge a teacher can accomplish much more than he can without it.

NO DOUBT of it. The Compulsory Education Law passed by the legislature of California in the winter of 1874, to take effect in the following July, has never been enforced. It is virtually a dead letter on the statute books. So says the *American Educational Monthly*.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

NOTES OF TRAVEL.

In our recent and first journey to Appleton, through the counties of Ozaukee, Sheboygan and Manitowoc, we were gratified to see an excellent portion of the State. No little labor has been expended by the first settlers in clearing off the abundant forests, but we judged that the fine farms resulting have in general amply repaid both the toil and time required in the process. In agricultural resources these counties seemed much better than we had supposed. They fairly deserve to rank among the best in the State. Considering their soil, their abundant timber, their proximity to important ports, their railway facilities, and their assured and prosperous future, their inhabitants would not be justified in looking for better fortune among the "Black Hills" or in any other spot where mere chance would take the place of the slow but certain gains of persistent industry.

The population of these counties is largely foreign. On this account the visit had a special interest to us. We desired to see the influence of our school system upon a people among whom the native American element is but a small minority. Are the public schools transforming into intelligent citizens of the State the children of the Germans, Irish, Norwegians, &c., inhabiting those counties? This is a most important and interesting question. If they are doing it there they are or can be doing it elsewhere with the like elements.

Our observations and inquiries were chiefly confined to the city of Manitowoc. We there found such evidences of the success of the public school system as we have scarcely met elsewhere in the State —an excellent public sentiment, able and successful teachers, admirable school buildings, and a county superintendent who was elected solely on account of his qualifications, by the common votes of men of all parties.

The schools are attended by substantially all the children. There is little or no need of a compulsory law. There can be no need of it anywhere under circumstances like these. A few sincere but mistaken people send their children to private sectarian schools, but the number is inconsiderable and must inevitably grow less.

The best methods are employed,—the word method, for instance, in teaching children to read having superseded the letter method with the most satisfactory and even surprising results.

Manitowoc has preserved the independent district system, each ward being a separate district under the management of the ordinary school board. This, however, does not appear to have there worked injury to the school interests. There has apparently been a generous and perhaps profitable rivalry between the wards. To this may be due the magnificent school building recently erected in one of them, —probably the finest "district school house" in the State, perhaps not surpassed, considering all its features, by any high school building therein. It cost $40,000 and we consider it very cheap at that price.

In this stately and admirably equipped building Prof. H. Barns is the efficient and popular presiding genius. Under his courteous guidance we examined every part of it, from the furnaces in the cellar to the lofty cupola whence is obtained a broad view of the city, the lake, and the surrounding country.

We cannot pass over in silence the beautiful grove adjoining, the choicest summer play-ground that children could ask —worth, indeed, itself a journey to see— a perpetual benediction upon those who enjoy its shades—a joy to the true lover of Nature beyond any thing in the finest of city parks—a piece of the glorious and fragrant primeval pine forest in which the city was founded.

The other school building we visited, upon the opposite side of the river, was an excellent one. In this that admirable compromise between the Teuton and the Yankee, Prof. Viebahn, exercises his genial yet culture-compelling sway.— There we had the pleasure of seeing an

Institute of some fifty teachers, assembled under the directorship of Superintendent Kirwan, who was ably assisted in his work by Professors Viebahn and Barns.

In charge of the school of another ward and district we found Mr. Luce, a recent graduate of Platteville Normal School, a younger man, with a more limited experience, but whom we heard well spoken of.

These principals are ably supported by assistants of tried ability and skill. We are inclined to think that, upon the whole, a more satisfactory exhibit of its educational interests can not be shown by any other city or village in the State. Manitowoc can justly be proud of its schools, and it were well that her example should be pondered by many another place where divided counsels, an unwise parsimony, and a low appreciation of educational advantages control and stifle educational progress.

No more curious problem has been presented to us than the *cause* of this liberal and harmonious spirit prevailing in Manitowoc city and county respecting public school interests. *Why* does this city provide spacious and costly buildings, pay comparatively good salaries, and aim at a wise permanence in its plans for the intellectual culture of its children? *Why* have both city and county, with a wisdom almost unprecedented, united in holding educational interests aloof from political interests, and in unanimously electing a County Superintendent solely on the ground of his eminent fitness for the position?! The wonder becomes greater when we consider that apparently nowhere can be found a less homogeneous people than in this county where, among the various nationalities, native Americans constitute perhaps not more than one-seventh of the entire population. We content ourselves now with merely stating the marvel, leaving the consideration of its solution to another time.

An editorial in a recent number of the La Crosse *Republican and Leader* speaks in high terms of the schools of that city, asserting that never before were they up to such a degree of usefulness and efficiency as now. The writer asserts that as much care has been taken in selecting teachers for the primary and intermediate classes as for the Grammar and High schools:

Prof. Reynolds, Principal of the High School, strolled over to the First Ward School the other day, and proceeded to overhaul one of the grammar classes. Addressing young McMillan, son of E. H. McMillan, Esq., after several questions and cross-questions about the lad's analysis of a sentence on the black-board, the Professor said—"If that is good grammar, I must have been taught wrong when I went to school." The reply of little "Duncan" was—"Well, I cannot help that, Sir." The Professor retired in good order.

THE SPRING INSTITUTES.

These are just closed as we write. A more successful series has perhaps never been held in the State. The attendance has in general been large and the interest good. Prof. Graham writes that in his district "the attendance and interest manifested have never been surpassed, if equaled." He reports the following attendance of actual members: At Fond du Lac 197, Appleton 163, Stevens Point 112, Waupaca 160, Poysippi 90, making a total of 722 brought under the stimulating and enlightening influence of these educational gatherings in only five counties of the State. Add the sixteen other counties in which Institutes have been conducted by Professors McGregor, Salisbury, Parker and Terry, and it is seen that the number of teachers reached is very large. From these latter gentlemen full reports have not yet been received, but enough to fully justify the words above used.

The large attendance, with weather and traveling unfavorable, is a good evidence of the continued vigor and wisdom with which the Institute system is managed both by the Regents and the Conductors. To the County Superintendents also no small amount of the success reached should be ascribed. They have in general faithfully performed their duty in

advising teachers to avail themselves of the advantages for improvement offered by the Institutes.

It may be confidently said that continued experience confirms the wisdom of the plan of closely connecting the Institute system with the Normal Schools. They give mutual aid and strength. The schools furnish skilled and permanent conductors who understand the condition and needs of their counties. The Institutes, in turn, are often the means of securing for the schools some of their best pupils. With the opening of the River Falls school and the consequent addition of a new Institute district, still greater efficiency will be given to both these educational agencies.

A GOOD THING.

One of the last official acts of Hon. Newton Bateman, late Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois, was the publication of a catalogue of books "to aid those charged with the selection of books for school, district and town libraries under the laws of Illinois." The list makes a pamphlet of 133 pages, including four pages of judicious introductory remarks and an index of two pages. The whole shows evidence of good taste and judgment. A wise knowledge of books, such as would justify a man's appointment to select a library, is a rare accomplishment—possessed by not one in a hundred even of educated men. As for the ordinary school officer, as well expect in him a knowledge of Sanscrit as of this sort of book lore.

Hence a Department of Public Instruction could scarcely do the State a greater service than to prepare a Manual like this, from which *all poor* books are excluded and the comparative and peculiar merits of good ones so clearly, and in general, so wisely set forth that it becomes at once a safe guide to both purchasers and readers.

Wisconsin should inaugurate an efficient system of township libraries and then prepare and distribute to the proper officers and to all applicants a similar book-purchasers guide. The State Superintendent will make such a system a special study during the present year, and its results may be expected in what will probably be the leading paper of his next Annual Report.

FREE HIGH SCHOOLS.

The State Superintendent is in receipt of numerous letters of inquiry respecting the method of establishing these schools under the new law. These letters coming from different parts of the State, and also sundry articles in various newspapers, recently coming under his observation, show that much interest is felt in the new system and lead to the belief that a goodly number of schools will be in operation under the law before the close of the year. Circulars setting forth the methods of organizing the same, their course of study, objects, etc., will be ready for distribution within a few days after the publication of this number of the JOURNAL, and will be sent to County Superintendents, town clerks, and to such other persons as may need the information they contain and will take the trouble to ask for them.

WE are pleased to receive the following notice:

The officers and counsellors of the National Educational Association have decided by a vote of thirty-two to fourteen to hold the next meeting in Minneapolis, Minn. Ample arrangements will be made by local committees to provide for the entertainment of members and for excursion rates by the lakes and railroads and by the river. A circular will soon be issued giving particulars as to routes and accommodations as well as the programme of the proceedings. The time fixed for the meeting is August 3d, 4th, and 5th, 1875. W. T. HARRIS,

President Nat. Ed. Association.

TAYLOR CO.—The first Superintendent of this new county which was taken off from Marathon, is Mr. O. N. Lee, who was appointed by Governor Taylor as provided in the act forming the county. His P. O. is Medford.

STATE EXAMINATION.

We regret our inability to announce this month definitely the time and place of the annual examination for State Certificates. It is probable, however, that an examination for the present year will be held at Madison on the second Wednesday of August—the place and time fixed by law. An additional meeting of applicants may be appointed at Eau Claire in July in connection with the session of the State Teachers' Association. A circular will shortly be issued by the Superintendent announcing all particulars.

There is reason to believe that the number of applicants the present year will be larger than ever before. Nearly all who were unsuccessful last year are expected to be present to make up deficiencies, and many new candidates have already signified their intention to enter the lists.

A LETTER from Prof. Beck informs us incidentally that the enrollment of Normal students at Platteville at the beginning of the present term was larger than in any preceding summer term. "School opens grandly," he says.

WE are advised that each of our subscribers will receive a free specimen copy of *The Little Diamond*, from Monroe, Mich. They are cordially recommended to give it a careful inspection, and to follow any good suggestions it may offer them.

ADVICES from Pierce county already indicate that the young people in that part of the State who will apply for admission to the River Falls school at its opening next September are almost as numerous as leaves in Valombrosa. The school will be filled from the beginning, and under the management of President Parker will at once take high rank among the Normal schools of the West.

THE Reformers showed their good judgment by electing a good Republican, Miss Jennie Jewell, to the school board in the third ward.—*Star and Times.*

JUST SO! Jennie has long been a prominent St. Croix County teacher, and we are exceedingly well pleased to hear of her promotion to higher honors and trusts. We believe that Miss Jewell is the first lady in the St. Croix Valley to hold office under the new school law. Others will follow.—*Polk County Press.*

We are pleased to copy the above paragraphs, the first record we have as yet observed of action under the new law rendering women eligible to school offices. We shall be glad to publish other records of such "good judgment," both in selecting competent women to aid in the outside management of schools, and in so ignoring politics in connection with school offices that "Reformers" may be willing to elect "Republicans," or vice versa,—the only question to be asked being the paramount one relating to the *fitness* of the person for the place.

LA CROSSE CO.—Inclosed find report of Institute just held in this county. It has been one of the most profitable Institutes ever held in the county. The work done has been done effectively, and I hear teachers every day saying that they never spent a more profitable week. We are highly pleased with Prof. Parker as a conductor.—S. M. LEETE, *Supt.*

CLARK COUNTY.—Prof. Parker did *good* work here in the Institute. Though the weather was bad and roads very muddy, we had over fifty teachers out, and all seemed interested. Is it probable that we can have a Normal Institute for two weeks from August 30th? We have great need of Institute work among the teachers here, and now have a good house suitable for one.—R. J. SAWYER, *Supt.*

DANE CO.—The Institutes were conducted this spring by Prof. McGregor, that for the Second, or West District being held at Middleton, and ending April 2d with an attendance of 87, which, considering the state of the roads, was very good. The teachers went away with many new ideas and impulses for their summer's work.—For the 1st District the Institute was at Marshall, the week following, in the Academy building, Prof.

Marsh, the Principal, kindly making room. The attendance was 103, and quite punctual, with continued interest to the end, and altogether it is said to have been the best Institute ever held in the District.

ROCK CO., (2d District.)—The Institute was held March 22–27, in the College Chapel at Milton. A correspondent of the Janesville *Gazette* says:

"Last week was a 'gala' week in Milton. The Teacher's Institute called together here the cultured, talented teachers from all directions, who are not satisfied with present knowledge and seek to obtain more. The attendance was large, and the Institute, under the careful management of Prof. Salisbury, accomplished much real satisfactory work. On Wednesday evening Prof. S. S. Rockwood, of the Whitewater Normal School, delivered his lecture entitled "Literary Culture Not Found in Text-Books'" to one of the largest audiences that has assembled in College Chapel for years. The lecture was well received, and merited the large audience which assembled to hear it. For full particulars in regard to the Institute, we refer our readers to the report of the secretary."

Superintendent Tracy also reports the Institute as very successful, and some of those who attended it say it was "far ahead of anything of the kind ever before held in the county."

MILWAUKEE CO., (2nd District.)—The Institute held at Wauwatosa, Milwaukee county, from March 29th to April 2d, was a decided success. There were 82 teachers present at the opening. The enrollment reached 42, and the average attendance for working members was 37. When it is considered that only 36 persons are required to teach our schools, and only 44 hold certificates, the attendance must be regarded as very fair.

Prof. Terry, by his gentlemanly bearing and thorough scholarship, made a lasting impression upon all. Gentlemen A. F. North, I. N. Stewart, and W. J. Bowen rendered valuable assistance in conducting certain exercises. The lectures delivered by Prof. Farrar and W. J. Bowen, Esq., met with deserved appreciation. The people of the place manifested their interest in the cause by their presence at the meetings, and by providing free entertainment for the lady teachers. At the close of the Institute a vote of thanks was tendered to those who conducted the exercises, to the lecturers, and to the citizens for their cordial liberality.—JAS. L. FOLEY, *Supt.*

MARQUETTE CO.—The Secretary of the Institute held at Westfield, April 5–10, Mr. E. A. Fisher, favors us with a fine notice of the same, for which we regret we cannot make room entire, but we give the salient points: "Superintendent Older," he thinks, "could ask no stronger 'testimonial' than the unusual number who responded to his call, and the members of the Institute could wish no higher reward than the pleasure and profit afforded." "Without seeming to hurry," he says, "Mr. Parker kept the ball rolling, and the amount of work done and well done was truly marvelous." He also notes "the readiness, with which even the most diffident members were wont to respond; and right here," he says, "there 'points a moral.'" The following resolutions adopted show the spirit of the Institute:

Resolved, That in our opinion the Institute is doing more than any other educational appliance of the state in disseminating advanced and improved methods of instruction among the common school teachers of the country, and must continue for some time to be the principal medium of communication between the Normal schools and the great mass of public school teachers; and hence that appropriations made by the state for its support are a good investment.

Resolved, That being convinced of the superiority of the township system of schools over the present district system, we believe the Legislature should make the system obligatory.

Resolved, That the Town High School, for which a recent law of the Legislature provides, is as much a necessity to the pupil as is the Normal and Institute to the teacher, and is especially adapted to this section of the country.

Resolved, That we have faith in the efficiency of the County Superintendency, but we believe it should be an appointive, rather than an elective office, the appointing power being vested in the State Su-

perintendent, subject to confirmation by the County Board, and based upon qualifications.

WE have received a circular announcing the Saint Croix Collegiate Institute, located at Hudson, Wisconsin, and in charge of Rev. Henry F. Wogan, LL. D., as Principal, assisted by several other teachers.

NEW BOOKS.—We invite attention to the new READERS and a PRIMARY SPELLER, announced by Messrs. Wilson, Hinkle & Co., from the pen of THOMAS W. HARVEY, A. M., author of a Grammar issued by the same house. None but good books are added to the "Eclectic Series," and teachers and boards will therefore be on the look-out for the above mentioned.

R. W. BURTON, late Superintendent of the Soldiers' Orphans' Home in this city, we are pleased to learn takes charge in Janesville, as Principal and Superintendent, *vice* W. D. Parker, resigned. The Home has fulfilled its benevolent mission, and has been sometime closed, and Mr. Burton and his wife have, we believe, given great satisfaction in the discharge of their trust.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.—We discover that short questions sometimes bring out abundant answers, as witness the articles in our last number and in the present one on "Mathematical Geography," and "Our Acquisitions of Territory." Under the former head we have received a brief and well written article from A. J. Pattee, Stevens Point, which we reserve for next month.

DISCOURAGING.—A County Superintendent writes us as follows:

"One thing discourages me a little, viz: good teachers holding second grade certificates, and who received $40 per month last winter, and gave good satisfaction, cannot get $30 this summer, and consequently many of them will remain idle during the summer, while girls keep the schools for $20 per month.

CALIFORNIA.—A catalogue from the Principal, Prof. C. H. Allen, formerly of this state, shows an attendance during the past year of 488 pupils at the State Normal School at San Jose, 98 of whom were in the Training School. From the peculiarities of climate, or on account of California progressiveness, the school year ends with March, in that occidental region. Among the teachers we think we recognize two from Wisconsin besides the Principal—Miss Annie E. Chamberlain and Miss Florence Grigsby. We quote a perttnent remark from the report of the Principal:

Our instructional force has been quite too small. While it is as easy to teach forty, as one, it is impossible to give to classes of this size the training in expression, and in clearness of thought, so desirable in the teacher. From the very nature of our work, a normal school requires a much larger corps of teachers, in proportion to the number of pupils, than other schools. The principal work must be *training* rather than *teaching*.

STATE Superintendent Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, says in the January number of his *School Journal*:

"In its earlier years the county superintendency was weighed down by incompetent men who succeeded in securing an election to the office. This is still its greatest weakness; but in 1867 it was enacted that no one could be eligible to the office of County Superintendent unless he possessed certain qualifications—a measure that has proven most salutary in keeping out of the office many unworthy persons. To these officers the state is much indebted for the progress made in the school affairs of the state within the last few years."

A MAGNIFICENT College for women is to be erected in England by Mr. Holloway, the manufacturer of patent medicines. It will cost $720,000, and will receive 400 students. Ninety acres of land have been purchased for the site near Egham. The elevation of the edifice shows an immense quadrangle, with a very imposing front, somewhat in the style of the Louvre. In the center of the

quadrangle there is to be a gymnasium, and the lower story will be occupied by a very large library and various halls and class-rooms, the latter being generally constructed so as to accommodate about 20 or 30 students. The upper floor is devoted to domitories. It is said that $500 a year will be the sum asked for board and tuition. No applicant under 17 years of age will be admitted, and all must be prepared to pass a somewhat strict matriculation. It is mentioned as not improbable that the successful competitors at the examinations may obtain degrees.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

FIRST LESSONS IN PHYSICS. By C. L. HOTZE, Teacher of Physics in the Central High School, Cleveland. St. Louis: Hendricks, Chittenden & Co., 175 pp., 16 mo.

This is a companion volume to "First Lessons in Physiology," noticed in our March number, and is a third edition. The author thinks, very properly, "that an elementary knowledge of some important instruments, machines and physical phenomena, can and should be given in our common schools," and the book has been prepared to meet the difficulty of finding time for the study. Even one lesson a week will enable something to be done. The book, therefore, just fills a niche in common school wants.

HOW TO WRITE CLEARLY. Rules and Exercises in English Composition. By Rev. EDWIN A. ABBOTT, M. A., Head Master of the City of London School. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 78 pp., 16 mo.

This little manual is reprinted from the tenth English edition, and contains a great many ideas and hints not always found in larger and more pretentious books. It will prove to be of service where accuracy and real scholarship are aimed at.

SCRIBNER, with the May No. ends its 10th vol., and may look back with pride on what it has done. The "Mysterious Island," and the "Story of Seven Oaks," are continued, and the "Baltimore Bonapartes" are sketched, etc.; but the article of most interest to us in this issue is on the immense labors of the Dutch in the way of "Droogmakerij," or Drainage. Not satisfied with pumping out Lake Haarlem, and making a "polder" (that is a tract of land below the level of the sea,) embracing 44,659 acres, now supporting 12,000 inhabitants, it is proposed to expel the southern portion of the Zuyder Zee back into the ocean and dyke off a "polder" of 480,000 acres! And it will be done. The Dutch know no such word as as fail, and if they keep on, they will make Holland a country of quite respectable size. Now is the time to subscribe for Scribner, if you have neglected it hitherto.

OLD AND NEW for May continues its interesting sketches of "One Hundred Years Ago." Such articles help to invigorate our patriotism. The next article, "The American Governments," by the editor, Edward E. Hale, is also timely. Among the minor articles is one upon the "Bourbons," who are yet in abundance, it seems, for all monarchical wants in France and Spain. The departments of Art and Music as usual are very interesting, and must prove very valuable to artists and the lovers of the *best* music. January began the 10th volume. Boston: Four dollars a year.

[ANNOUNCEMENT.]

WILSON, HINKLE & Co., (Cincinnati and New York) have just published *Harvey's Graded School Readers* and *Primary Speller*, by THOS. W. HARVEY, A. M., author of Elementary and Practical Grammar of the English Language. The Graded-School Readers are complete in five books, embodying the most approved methods of teaching reading, printed on fine paper, handsomely and substantially bound, and illustrated by the most celebrated artists in the country. See the publisher's advertisement.

WEBSTER'S UNABRIDGED.—Those who have yet to obtain this great treasure will find it enriched with a new feature, viz: beautifully colored representations of the flags of the nations and of the coats of arms of the different states of this world including all our own. This feature is really an interesting study. No one can use Webster long without admitting the truth of the words of the Principal of Mt. Holyoke Female Seminary, who says, "It is a whole library in itself. It is a mine whose treasures I so like to explore, that when I go to it for a word, I am constantly lingering to study it. *Its definitions and word histories are marvels of thoroughness and accuracy.*

CLASS-CALLER.—We have been shown by the inventor, Mrs. O'Byrne, of Milwaukee, a little piece of apparatus which we designate as a *class-caller*. Having been tested by one of our city teachers, it is, we learn, warmly approved. It is designed to take the place of a signal-bell, or any other expedient used, and is simple, convenient and inexpensive. We recommend teachers and boards to examine it.

THE *Lawrence Collegian*, one of the neatest and best conducted of the college papers on our exchange list, says of the JOURNAL. "It has become to be almost an indispensable source of information concerning all the latest movements and advances in the educational cause."

SEE advertisement on 3rd page of cover.

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Oberlin's Labors in the Ban de la Roche, Alsace.

This extraordinary man was the patriarch of his people. He was their lawgiver, at least by the force of moral suasion, as well as their pastor, their temporal not less than their spiritual guide. Notwithstanding the praise-worthy labors of his excellent predecessor, Mr. Stouber, he found them, on his arrival at Waldebach, still sunk almost to the lowest level in the scale of moral and civil existence; scarcely, indeed, superior to the brutes in any thing but their susceptibility of improvement.

Their ignorance was such that their very school-masters could scarcely any of them write, and many could not read with fluency; and as to a knowledge of any thing else, they were nearly as ignorant as so many statues. Some idea of their condition may be formed from the following extract from Professor Halsey's "Memoirs of Oberlin." "They were alike destitute of the means of mental and social intercourse; they spoke a rude *patois*, resembling the Lorrain dialect, and the medium of no external information; they were entirely secluded from the neighboring districts by the want of roads; the husbandmen were destitute of the most necessary agricultural implements, and had no means of procuring them; the provisions derived from the soil were not sufficient to maintain even a scanty population;" and the soil itself had so far deteriorated by use, and been so often swept away by the rain, from the rocks it covered, that fields that had formerly yielded from 120 to 150 bushels of potatoes, produced, in 1767, when Oberlin went to the Ban de la Roche, only from 20 to 50 bushels. These various causes, which, however, may all be traced to ignorance as their fruitful mother, had resulted in a degree of rudeness, indigence, and misery, absolutely appalling, and which rendered the task of improving them one of extreme difficulty, and of doubtful issue.

Nothing, however, could deter this excellent man from attempting their reform. He entered upon his work with the zeal of an apostle, and prosecuted it with the wisdom of a sage, and the patience of a devotee. He not only instructed them in religion and science, but he taught them agriculture and the mechanic arts, and indoctrinated them practically in the deepest principles of political economy; and he had the happiness of beholding, in the course of a few years, the most remarkable change, wrought through his instrumentality, that has perhaps ever occurred, in so brief a space, in the condition of an entire people. The rude mountaineers had exchanged their wretched hovels for neat and comfortable cottages, and their scanty rags for decent apparel; their barren rocks had been, by the transportation and deposit of soil upon them, converted into fruitful fields;

manufactures of various kinds had been established; a small but prosperous commerce had been commenced; roads, of which, properly speaking, there were none before, had been constructed—schools established and perfected—an Agricultural Society formed, and numerous improvements in agriculture introduced—and various institutions founded which mark a somewhat advanced state of Christian civilization; and industry, contentment, and plenty, smiled throughout the valley, and cheered the abode of every cottager.

"Although on Oberlin's first arrival in the Ban de la Roche," says his biographer, "the population consisted of eighty or a hundred families only, it increased in the course of a few years to five or six hundred, constituting altogether three thousand souls.

"To provide employment for so great a number of persons, even supposing that five hundred could be employed during four or five months in the year in the cultivation of land, and that one third were infants and infirm persons incapable of work, became a most important object, and gave rise to the introduction of various branches of mechanical industry, adapted to local circumstances; such, for instance, as straw-platting, knitting, and dyeing with the plants of the country. The former was introduced by an invalid captain, whose gratitude for the kind reception he met with, on soliciting the hospitality of the generous pastor of Waldebach, induced him to proffer his services in furthering the views of his benefactor, by instructing the young persons in art with which necessity had previously made him acquainted.

"Besides these employments, Oberlin had succeeded in introducing the spinning of cotton by the hand; and, as he gave prizes to the best spinners in addition to their wages, this branch of industry for a time succeeded so well that it once gained for the Ban de la Roche, in the course of a single year, and from one manufacturer, the emolument of thirty-two thousand francs—an enormous sum, considering the extreme poverty and indigence to which the inhabitants had just before been subjected. Weaving followed, and, notwithstanding numerous obstacles, promised a large increase of pecuniary means; but, unfortunately, the introduction of machinery at Schirmeck and some of the surrounding villages, produced an entire revolution about the time the preceding letter was written, deprived them of this source of maintenance, and seemed likely to reduce them to their former state of necessity and want.

"During this emergency, Mr. Legrand, of Basle, formerly one of the Directors of the Helvetic Republic, attracted to the Ban de la Roche by regard and affection for its pastor, and the simplicity, intelligence, and integrity of his parishioners, persuaded his two sons, to whom he had relinquished business, to remove their manufactory of silk ribands from the Department of the Upper Rhine to Foudai, believing that its introduction in the Steinthal, by giving employ to a great many hands, would become not only an advantage but a real blessing to the peasantry there, who were at this period sadly in need of work.

"In the course of a short time, through the exertions of this benevolent and highly respectable family, industry and happiness again smiled in the valley:—for whilst the introduction of the silk manufactory caused trade to be carried on with renewed vigor, and gave employment to several hundred hands, it was attended with another great advantage, too seldom experienced in great manufacturing districts; this was that the riband looms were distributed about the houses in the different villages, so that, contrary to the usual custom, the children could remain whilst at work under the eye of their parents, instead of being exposed to the contaminating influence of bad example.

"'Conducted by Providence,' says Mr. Legrand, in a letter addressed to the Baron de Gerando, 'into this remote valley, I was the more struck with the sterility of its soil, its straw-thatched cottages, the apparent poverty of its inhabitants, and the simplicity of their fare, from the con-

trast which these external appearances formed to the cultivated conversation which I enjoyed with almost every indiuidual I met with whilst traversing its five villages, and the frankness and *naivete* of the children, who extended to me their little hands. I had often heard of Pastor Oberlin, and eagerly sought his acquaintance. He gave me the most hospitable reception, and anticipated my desire to know more of the history of the little colony, whose manners had surprised me so greatly, by placing in my hands the annals of his parish.

"'It is now four years since I removed here with my family; and the pleasure of residing in the midst of a people, whose manners are softened and whose minds are enlightened by the instructions which they receive from their earliest infancy, more than reconciles us to the privations which we must necessarily experience in a valley separated from the rest of the world by a chain of surrounding mountains."

Behold in the simple annals of that remote valley, the triumph of good education! Contemplate the countless blessings and the sublime hopes it confers upon its possessors; blessings which make up the sum of human happiness below—hopes which stretch beyond the dark and troubled horizon that bounds our earthly prospects, and are anchored fast to the Eternal Throne! Read, moreover, this important lesson—important certainly to the political economist—that it is a pecuniary, as well as moral gain, to any community where it is enjoyed!—*Wines' Hints on Popular Education.*

Several Problems in Graded School Management—II.

BY E. E. WHITE, EDITOR OF THE NATIONAL TEACHER.

(Paper read before the National Educational Association at Detroit, Aug. 4, 1874.)

III. Another problem in graded school management touches the freedom of the teacher, and may thus be stated: *How to subject a corps of teachers to efficient supervision and not reduce them to operatives.*

The adoption of a definite course of study with subdivisions corresponding to the number of classes, all following each other in natural order, necessitates the mastery of each of the successive portions as a preparation for the next higher. When the pupils in the lower grades or classes are sufficiently numerous to occupy several schoolrooms under different teachers, the progress and attainments of the several sections of each grade or class must be sufficiently uniform to enab. them to come together in the upper grades or classes. This necessitates a degree of uniformity of instruction, and it is just here that *the mechanism of the graded system touches its very life*, as the experience of too many of the larger cities plainly shows. To secure this uniformity of instruction the course is mapped out in minute details, and the time to be devoted to each part, the order in which the steps are to be taken, and even the methods of teaching, are definitely and authoritatively prescribed. As a result the teacher is not free to teach according to his "conscience and power," but his high office is degraded to the grinding of prescribed grists, in prescribed quantities, and with prescribed fineness—to the turning of the crank of a revolving mechanism.

The supervising principal of a public school in a large city once said to the speaker: "It is idle to ask my teachers to read professional works. They follow the prescribed course of study and look to me for their methods. Their ambition is to do their work precisely as I direct, and they do this without inquiring whether my methods are correct or incorrect. It is enough that I prescribe them." It is possible that this may be an extreme case, but it illustrates the tendency of the system, when administered as a mechanism. It seems unnecessary to say that this prescribed uniformity in both the matter and method of instruction, is subversive of all true teaching. Carpets may be woven, garments made, and stone carved by pattern, but the unfolding and informing of a human soul is not the work of operatives, following appointed forms and methods. The human soul is not touched by the revolving cogs of me-

chanical methods. True teaching requires the artist's hand and the artists' spirit. Fruitful methods may be evoked; they can never be imposed. They must bear the impress of the teacher's image, and pulsate with the life which he breathes into them. The vital element in every method of instruction is *what the teacher puts into it*, and hence the prime fact in every school is the teacher. It is not enough that graded schools go through with the forms of a philosophic course of instruction. The knowledge to be taught may be wisely selected and arranged, the successive steps may follow each other in natural order, and the entire mechanism may be so perfect that the revolving cogs touch each other with beautiful precision; and yet, if the whole be not vitalized by true teaching, the system is a failure as a means of education. The one essential condition of success is the informing, vitalizing spirit of free, earnest teachers; and the more philosophical the system of instruction attempted, the more essential is this condition. A routine of mere book lessons may be conducted by a blind plodder who can turn the crank and tighten the screws, but a system of instruction, having for its grand end the right unfolding and training of the mind and heart, requires the insight, the invention, the skill, the inspiration of the true teacher, We are slow in learning that philosophic methods of teaching are practicable only to those who have some insight into their principles. The oral teaching in our schools is often as deadening as the old text-book drills. Some of the object-lesson teachers out-Herod Herod in mechanical teaching, and if I were obliged to choose between the text-book grinder and the crank-turner of prescribed object lessons, I should unhesitatingly take the former, with the assurance that he would have something to grind!

But how can this difficulty be avoided in a graded system of instruction? How can requisite uniformity be secured and, at the same time, the teacher have necessary professional freedom? I do not assume to be able fully to answer these questions.

My first suggestion is, that a sharp discrimination must be made between *results* and *methods*. The essential thing in a graded system is, that there be necessary uniformity in results at stated periods, and this can be attained without denying the teacher freedom in his methods. This teacher will succeed best by one method and that teacher by another, and each should be left free to use his best power.

Another suggestion may be important. A course of study may prescribe a minimum amount of work for each school term or year, or as a condition of promotion, but the stated order and time of the subdivisions should be merely suggestive. Uniformity should be required only so far as it may be important or necessary. The essential result in a graded system is, that the several classes of the same grade come to the examination for promotion with like attainments. It is not important that the several teachers accomplish the same result day by day or week by week. Nothing is more ridiculous than the attempt to parcel out primary instruction and tie it up in daily or weekly prescriptions, like a doctor's doses. This week the class is to take certain facts in geography; to count by twos to fifty (to sixty would be a fearful sin!); to draw the vertical lines of a cube; to learn to respect the aged, etc.! This also suggests the folly of restricting teachers to the work laid down in the course. One teacher can accomplish more than another in the same time, and, if forbidden to widen her instruction, to turn into new fields, the surplus time will be wasted in useless repetition. A scheme of study can only prescribe the minimum, the essential course. Parallel with this, and diverging from it, are lines of important knowledge, which the teacher should be free to explore. Moreover, it is in these very diversions from the beaten path, that the most valuable instruction is often imparted. The teacher carries into them an unusual zeal and interest, and his pupils are thus quickened with a new inspiration. It is taken for granted in this suggestion, that the schools are supplied with well qualified teachers and this presupposes

that they have received necessary professional preparation. We are beginning to recognize the fact that *the essential condition of the highest success of American schools is the thorough normal training of our teachers.*

But the great remedy for the particular evil under consideration is intelligent, flexible supervision. Supervision is of doubtful worth when it exhausts itself on the mere mechanism of a school system. It must, of course, secure uniformity and system, but these may be attained without grooving the teachers' instruction or sacrificing their professional freedom and progress. An experienced superintendent once remarked that his chief business was to keep his teachers out of the ruts. To this end the superintendent must be qualified to instruct, inspire, and lead teachers in the work of professional improvement, and his supervision must be flexible enough to allow free investigation and experiment. It is true that a corps of teachers, imbued with such an earnest spirit of inquiry and progress, will run in no one's groove, but what is thus lost in uniformity will be more than made up in vital teaching.

IV. A fourth problem in graded-school management is *the proper adaptation of the system to the needs of those pupils who can give only a part of their time to school duties.* "The schools," says a leading paper, "allow no divided allegiance. If the boy goes to school, he must go steadily, and give it the heart of the working day." No provision is made for children who must devote a part of each day to labor. Hence young children are taken out of school to assist in household duties, to sell papers or do errands, or to render other assistance, really demanding but a portion of their time. Many pupils are withdrawn from school at a very early age to learn trades. They are too young to work more than the half of each day, and would make even more rapid progress in manual labor if they could spend the other half in school. But the doors of the public schools are closed against them. They must choose between the shop and the school, and the necessity of earning a living as early as possible scarcely permits, in many instances, a choice.

The failure of the public schools to accommodate this class of pupils, the very class which, above all others, needs their advantages, has been too generally accepted as unavoidable. Whenever the necessities of the family have demanded any portion of the regular school hours, children have quietly dropped out of their classes, and the schools have gone on apparently unconscious of their absence. But the proposition to enact laws compelling parents to send their children to school, has raised the inquiry whether the schools are not responsible for some of the absences to be thus corrected. It is urged that the first step is to adapt the schools to the necessities of all classes.

As a means to this end it has been suggested that the public schools should be organized on what is known as the half-time system—a system tried with encouraging results in Europe and also in the primary schools of several cities in this country. It is urged that the uniting of labor and schooling is the true idea, that children who devote their whole time for eight or ten years to schooling are not then likely to enter on manual labor with much enjoyment, and, besides, that labor and schooling, when united, assist each other. The half-time pupils prove, as a rule, as apt scholars as their full-time classmates, and, at the same time, more skilled workers than their unschooled work-fellows.

These considerations have certainly great weight, but I am not convinced that the adoption of the half-time system in the upper grades of our schools is necessary to secure the desired end. A great many of the pupils in city schools would not engage in manual labor the half of each day were the half-time system adopted. If in school only half of the day, they would spend the other half in idleness or on the streets, and some in worse places. When no home study is required, the present system allows some six hours a day and every Saturday for labor and recreation. This is found to be time enough for many children to do

all the work that is provided for them. It is possible that it would be better if all our youth had regular work the half of each day, but the public schools can not change the usages of society in this respect. They must conform to what is, rather than to what should be.

It has also been suggested that half-time schools might be organized for working children, and that the present system be continued for others. This involves not only a classification but a separation of children on the basis of manual labor, and we have already quite enough of this class principle in the organization of our schools. It is believed that the difficulty under consideration can be successfully met without organizing separate schools for working children. What is needed is to make the course of study and requirements of our schools flexible enough to accommodate this class of pupils. Instead of half-time schools, I would suggest *a half-time course of study* in all grades above the primary. It is not necessary to require all the pupils in our public schools to take the same number of studies and advance with even step through the course. This procrustean device must be given up, if the public school system is to do its full legitimate work as an agency for the education of the whole people. Instead of excluding pupils who can not meet all the conditions of a complete and thorough course of elementary education, it must provide for such pupils the best education possible under the circumstances. This may involve some loss in uniformity and system, but there will be a gain in usefulness—a result more important than mechanical perfection in classification.

The four great problems which we have thus imperfectly considered, are pre-eminently graded-school problems, having their origin, so to speak, in the element of gradation. Our educational problems, as the teacher problem, the study problem, the sex problem, etc., relate alike to both graded and ungraded schools.

It is hoped that I am not understood to condemn the graded system, for the very aim of this paper is to assist in making the system more efficient and useful. It is also hoped that I am not understood to intimate that the defects pointed out exist in equal degree in all graded schools. I bear cheerful testimony to the fact that the gravity of these problems is appreciated by scores of superintendents in my acquaintance, and encouraging progress has been made in their practical solution.

It may also be remarked, in conclusion, that I have aimed more to state guiding principles than to solve these problems in detail. The one principle I desire specially to impress is, that the solution of each of these four problems is found in the *proper subordination* of the demands of the graded system as a mechanism to its great purpose as an agency for the education of the people—for furnishing every child with the best possible education it is capable of receiving in the actual circumstances which surround it; in the proper subordination of unformity and system, which are but means, to the sublime end of unfolding, enriching, and beautifying the human soul—of touching human life in all conditions with elevating and beneficent power.

WHEN SHALL WE PROMOTE?

F. W. HEWES, PRIN. SCHOOLS, MENASHA.

I believe the general custom in graded schools, at least in the west, is to make promotions at the beginning of the fall term. A few, so far as my knowledge extends promoting at the beginning of the winter term, and a few others making the spring term, the beginning of the school year.

Teachers and school boards who have adopted these different customs, have undoubtedly had what they considered good reasons for such judgment.

As I think the subject one of vital importance, I wish to present a few thoughts, which may, perhaps, illustrate something of that importance.

I presume the general custom results from the practice of changing teachers at the "long vacation," and from the fact that in the earlier years of all graded schools, no fixed course of study is pur-

sued, and that the "new teacher" is *expected* to reorganize to suit himself.

The custom thus established is followed through the succeeding years of the growth and gradually increasing importance of the school. Perhaps few of our school boards have ever thought that there is any reason for changing the custom, and many of our teachers would not have it changed, as it would seriously interfere with "hobbies" which most of have in some form or other.

Whenever classes or grades are promoted, of course room is thereby made in the lowest or primary department for the admission of a new lowest grade, and at that time *only*, in well regulated schools will students be received in such grade. In this feature the question naturally suggests itself, At what time of the school year can the little fellows enter school with the best promise, and under the best circumstances, to continue throughout the year?

Certainly not in the fall, for before they have become fairly initiated, the cold weather compels (?) many of them to stay at home, whereas if they begin with the spring term, the *weather* will not prevent continued attendance, and after a term's experience which is not only new but at best, usually somewhat irksome, they will have a fine rest, and be better prepared to take hold of the work; and having already become used to the change from home to school rule, do not find the cold weather as much of an objection; for we know that the imagination of little people as well as of their parents, is often a lively element in increasing real evils to say nothing of wholly creating those not real.

But following out the thought suggested by the mention of the rest for the little ones, I hear some one say, "Such a plan would compel a like break in every class in school, and would not the provision for a 'fine rest for the little ones' prove detrimental in some of our departments, by destroying the continuity of grade work?"

I answer, I think not, for our students are, even in the higher grades, but *children*, and if doing *good* work need more rest than they get.

Who has not noticed, that, on the plan of beginning the years work in the fall, students in even the higher grades, become "*fagged out*" in the warm weather of the spring term and find it very irksome indeed to *finish* the work necessary to promotion? whereas experience teaches me, that entering upon a *new* years work, in a *new* class with all the promptings which a *new* work gives, and free from the harassing anxiety of "*passing*" at the end of the term, students make the spring term more profitable, pass it more pleasantly, and leave the work with a better feeling to enjoy the vacation. More than this, by this arrangement, the term which closes the years work and which naturally requires the most severe application, is made the *winter* term, which of all the year is most favorable for close hard study; and to this hard work comes the *second* instead of the *third* term of continued effort in the same grade, which I regard as a favorable circumstance; for there is less liability to "lose heart," because as I have already said the third term provides new work, thus giving the student the powerful incentives always connected with pleasant anticipation, of a desired object *near* at hand.

A matter of no small importance in our High School department is the securing of uniformity in the number belonging.

It is a notable fact that those schools that promote in the fall have very full rooms during the fall and winter terms, and very poorly filled ones during the spring term, owing to the fact that non-residents, and those who *must* work a part of the year enter in the fall and leave in the spring. Now if grades are promoted at the beginning of the spring term the highest department receives a class which compensates for the falling off in numbers just mentioned, and in the fall the incoming of transient students does not make the rooms overcrowded, by the addition of a new grade at the same time. By this means the work in such higher department is more evenly

divided, and in like proportion, more profitable.

Have you ever felt that the grumbler argument that too much money is expended in the highest department upon a few students, seems to gather new force in the spring term? Have you ever looked over your many empty seats with an uncomfortable feeling as you contrasted the spring, with the fall and winter terms? What is here said of the uneven attendance in the High School department is inversely true to a great extent in the lower departments, for the spring is the time when the younger students flock into school, especially if there is a chance of their doing a final terms work, and thereby "squeezing through" into a higher grade.

Another feature to be considered is the fact that in most high schools we have a few students who do a part of the work of the course outside of school, while engaged in teaching during the summer in rural districts, and attending during the fall and winter. A moments thought shows how much more practicable this manner of taking the course of study becomes, by studying the *easier* parts of the years work outside and being in school the last part of the year to review the first and *finish* with the class, when possible errors of the outside study may be corrected instead of attempting to do the *last* term's work away from teachers and class.

A more important feature of this whole matter still claims our attention.

It is generally conceded that a change of teachers in any department is more or less detrimental, and this is especially the case in a change of principals.

Whatever will reduce this tendency to a minimum certainly deserves adoption. Beginning the school year with the spring term provides for the organizing of the new classes under the old teachers who know just where every individual student belongs, and hence each student finds his proper place, or at least stands a much better chance of finishing it, than if the organization were made by a new teacher after a vacation of two months, which of itself would make it much more difficult for even the old teacher to properly classify, even with most perfect records; for no system, well applied, is entirely inflexible, and the particular cases are of course much more easily adjusted while the circumstances are all fresh in mind.

The mere mention of these matters is sufficient to convince any one acquainted with school work, of the correctness of my position.

Add to the better organization by the old teachers the correction of all possible errors of such organization, and the full and complete settling into the grades on the part of students by three months work in new classes, and we have our departments in such shape that the new teacher has but to call the roll and taking up the work on the established programme, his classes take their accustomed places, and the work moves on almost without shock—because the new teacher is free to "put his shoulder to the wheel" wholly for the advancement of his pupils instead of losing more or less time in organizing, and then being distracted with a hundred requests to go into this class, or that, because Kate or Johnny is there, and "I think I can keep up if he can." "I was in her class last year," &c., &c. Nor is there any puzzling over the organization when made as to whether it is well made, and the teacher now has two terms to become acquainted with his school before promoting and newly organizing, and who will say that he is not then fitted to do it with the least possible loss to the school?

On this plan a change in principal even, cannot work harm, to the school more than a change of a subordinate teacher, and *he* too has time to consider well any change he may have thought best in the working of the schools, and such consideration will always tend to modify any hasty or strongly held opinions, so as to secure wise adaptation of such opinions to the work.

I have not mentioned the plan of beginning the school year with January as most of the objections to the fall plan

hold, with a somewhat modified force, in that case.

As every question has *two* sides at lêast, I would be glad to hear from practical thinkers on this question.

TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOLS.

The school law attempts to provide for the establishment of township high schools, though it must be confessed, the attempt is a very meagre one. The questions arise, what is the design of the High Schools? What the relation they sustain to the common-school system? Do they add anything to it? Only the cities and larger villages can establish courses of study and evolve high schools. It is here that we test the capabilities of the common-school system; here we find it in its most perfect development; here, the greatest enthusiasm among pupils, and the greatest interest among patrons. And viewing the system through the work of the graded schools, we have reason for much satisfaction and hope; but, on the other hand, viewing it through the condition of the country schools, the conclusion is overwhelming, that the system is totally inadequate to the wants of the country districts. It is a sad comment on the intelligence of the age, that the status of the district schools of to-day, is but little better than that of twenty years ago.

Now, where is the difficulty? Is it in the public school system, or in the mode of its execution? In both. The system is inadequate in its application to country schools, and it is apathetically executed as far as it goes. The better success of the system in the cities and larger villages, is due more to the *esprit de corps* of the teachers and intelligent liberality of the patrons, than to the peculiar excellence of the law. Our Normals are constantly turning out finished teachers, so far as a course of instruction and preliminary training can make them so. These have a professional enthusiasm and ambition that lead them to seek the best positions and shun the lower places; and the result is that the trained and experienced teachers gravitate toward the cities and villages, where their worth is better appreciated and compensated; while the country schools are turned over, in too many cases, to the untrained and inexperienced —to those wishing to fill out a hiatus of unemployed time, and those who desire to remain in the vocation only until they can marry out of it.

I do not wish to ignore the fact that there are many faithful, competent and successful workers in the country districts. All honor to them! For to them we are indebted for whatever of excellence or vitality there is in the country schools. How the standard of the country schools can be elevated; how an *esprit de corps* can be aroused, are problems difficult to solve, and I shall suggest only a few means of bringing about improvement in this direction. The three-grade certificate system, explained in the last *Schoolmaster*, if adopted, would, I think, be an important step in the right direction. Another means, and the most important, in my estimation, is efficient county supervision, of which I hope to write in an other paper.

Still another means, and I believe a very powerful one, though of somewhat limited application, is the establishment of Township High Schools. The superiority of city schools depends upon their graded system and high-school course. The pupils have something definite before them to work for, and it is a great stimulus to exertion. They will stay in the schools longer and work harder in view of graduation; and many pupils will complete the course for the sake of obtaining a diploma—for the *honor* of graduating—who have no definite line of action beyond and whom no other consideration would induce to remain during the course. We wish to supply a similar motive to country schools, and I think it can be done, in many cases, through the township high schools. Let these High Schools bear the same relation to the other schools in the district where they are located, as the High Schools in the cities to the under grades. Of course the grading could not be as full in any case, as in the city schools; and in some local

ities, on account of the sparseness of population, the establishment of a high school would be impracticable. In many thickly populated districts, there are small villages, often centrally located, with perhaps an *ungraded* graded school, in which pupils study whatever they please, as long as they please, and without having any definite purpose in view. Frequently a large per cent. of the attendance, in the higher department of these schools, is composed of non-resident pupils, living sometimes ten or twelve miles away, many of whom are fitting themselves for teaching, and to whom this point is the most accessible. The more excellent the school and the more extended the facilities, the larger and more permanent will this foreign element be, and it can always be depended upon as a feeder to the school. Now here is the township of A. containing a dozen schools, including the village school of three departments—which village we will suppose to be centrally located. The village school has an enrollment of a hundred and fifty pupils; the country schools aggregate a somewhat larger number, giving an average of 20 pupils. This village we will suppose to have no "manifest destiny" before it is a city of note. It is a quiet, moral place, having an intelligent class of inhabitants in and around it. The school has a higher department, but no regular course and no marked character as an educational force. There is nothing in it to give it caste or reputation abroad. The district schools in said township average *poor*, being good places to dissipate eight or ten years of valuable time. This is the present status. Well, let us establish a Township High School. What is that? In the first place, it is a school, having a regular, thorough and comprehensive course of study, inferior in no respect, to the High Schools of the large cities, unless in more modest pretensions. In the second place, it will become the means of increasing the general intelligence and elevating the public sentiment of the surrounding communities; it will increase the average school attendance greatly, keep the pupils longer in school at a time of vital importance to them, and increase greatly the amount of work of all. The school will assume a place of importance and influence at once. It is not a district affair—it is a township enterprise of the highest educational import. It is designed to be more comprehensive in its scope, than the want of the township in which it is located.

Thirdly, if the system is properly developed it will elevate the standard of the district schools of the township. I have said the High School and the other schools of the township should be connected, that is, the country schools should be preparatory to the High Schools, thus becoming feeders to them. They should advance pupils far enough to enter the High School; but there should be no admissions into the High School, except upon examination by the Principal or Board of Education. This system would furnish these pupils a motive for regularity and application that they do not now have—they would have a definite end now to work for—admission into the High School. And a large number of these pupils would be seized with an ambition to graduate, and they would do it. And while these schools are preparing material for the High School, this institution should be preparing teachers for these schools. A training class should be constantly connected with the High School, from which trained and cultured teachers could be chosen to supply the subsidiary schools, and thus the educational demand, though of a higher grade than ever before, could be supplied at home. There is no doubt, in my mind, where the establishment of a High School is practicable, that a great awakening will ensue, in educational interests, as a result. It will first seize upon the children, and, through them, arouse the more apathetic parents. The idea of *graduating*, to most children, is fascinating, and this idea will leaven the whole lump.

But let us look a little at the money side of the enterprise. Admitting a High School to be desirable, will it pay? In the first place, we need no $40,000 edifice; a modest, plain building, intelligently ar-

ranged, is better far than a gorgeous display of useless ornamentation. And in many places a building is already at hand, in the shape of a school house, of two or three departments, which, with slight alteration, will answer at first. The expense of running the district schools, will be lessened inasmuch as they can be taught altogether by women. Then much of the assistant teaching in the High School may be done by members of the training classes, free of expense to the district. Nor is this all. The high character of the High School, would call in foreign pupils, to such an extent, as to make this a constant and considerable source of revenue to the school. Further than this, every man's real estate would be enhanced and the annual profits of all legitimate kinds of business, would be largely increased.

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—A. M. CHADWICK, *in the Ills. Schoolmaster.*

CHINESE ASTRONOMY.

China furnishes us with the most ancient observations of which we can make any use astronomically. The earliest eclipses of which we have any mention can only serve the purposes of chronology, on account of the vague manner in which they are reported. But these eclipses prove that the epoch of the Emperor Yao was more than two thousand years before our era. Astronomy was cultivated in China as a basis of religious ceremonies. The calendar and the announcement of eclipses were important objects, for which they had created a tribunal of mathematics. They observed the meridian shadow of the gnomon at the solstices, and the passage of the stars over the meridian. They measured the time by clepsydras, or water-clocks. They determined the position of the moon with reference to the stars at its eclipses, by which they determined the position of the sun and the solstices with reference to the stars. They had even some instruments suitable for measuring angular distances between the stars. By these means united they discovered that a solar year exceeds by a quarter of a day three hundred and sixty-five days. Their year began at the winter solstice; their civil year was lunar; and to make a correspondence between the civil and solar year they made use of nineteen solar years, equivalent to two hundred and thirty-five lunations, the same period which Callippus introduced into the Greek calendar more than sixteen centuries later.

Their months were alternately twenty-nine and thirty days; their lunar year three hundred and fifty-four days, consequently too short by eleven and one fourth days; in the year when the number of days exceeded a lunation they intercalated one month. They had divided the equator into twelve immovable signs and into twenty-eight constellations, in which they determined the position of the solstices. The Chinese had instead of a century a cycle of sixty years, and a cycle of sixty days instead of a week; the small cycle of a week or seven days was known to them in the earliest ages, as to all other nations of the East. The division of the circumference in China was always subordinated to the length of a year, so that the sun described exactly one degree per day; but the divisions of the degree, of the day, and of all weights and measures were decimal; and this example, set by a great nation and in use for four thousand years, shows its advantage over all other methods of enumeration, and accounts for its extreme popularity.—(*From May "Home and School," Louisville, Ky.*)

LENGTH OF SERVICE OF TEACHERS.

In a late number of the *Journal of Education*, I find the report of a meeting of the Middlesex County Teacher's Association, at which President Eliot of Harvard University, lectured on "Wise and Unwise Economy in Schools." One of his points is reported in your columns as follows:

"It is a mistake to employ an undue proportion of women teachers:—women, as a rule, stop teaching upon marriage, and, being weaker than men, are more apt to be worn out by the fatigue of teaching, and, with some of them, teaching is not a life-work, as it ought to be,

but a temporary resort, on the way to another mode of life."

As this remark is quite contrary to my own observation, and as I have sometimes found that President Eliot speaks from less extensive observation of the facts when discussing public schools than when speaking of colleges, I have been led to a careful examination of those statistics on the subject within my reach. These consist of the school records as to the length of service on the part of teachers in the schools of Newport, R. I., where I am a member of the school committee.

The whole number of teachers at present employed by this city is 40. Average length of service, 7.62 years.

The whole number of men employed as teachers is 5; of these, one has served 12 years; three, 2 years each; one, less than one year. Average, 3.8 years.

The whole number of women employed as teachers is 35. Of these, three have served 21 years each; one, 17 years; one, 15 years; one, 14 years; three, 13 years; one, 12 years; one, 11 years; three, 10 years; two, 9 years; one, 8 years; one, 7 years; three, 6 years; one, 5 years; four, 4 years; two, 2 years; six, one year, or less. (Several of these last were appointed to teach new schools opened, or new branches of instruction introduced within the year.) Average, 8.17 years.

It will thus be seen that the average length of service of women, in the Newport schools, is more than twice that of men. I am confident that almost any town or small city in New England would yield a similar result, even if not quite so overwhelming. The facts in Boston might possibly be the other way, simply because the statistics of male teachers is there remarkably favorable and may tempt men to remain more permanently. On the other hand, the low wages paid women have quite as important an influence in promoting irregularity as has matrimony or ill-health. I know very excellent teachers of both sexes whose merits have secured their promotion into business more lucrative. A lady who is head book-keeper in a large manufacturing establishment in Rhode Island,—having men as clerks under her,—told me that she gave up teaching because the other profession was more profitable; instead of earning $500, she earned $1,000. Of course, the labor of women, like that of men, is subject to the law of demand and supply; but the variety of employments open to women being less, they, unfortunately for themselves and for Mr. Eliot's argument, are apt to remain in one place not merely as long as men, but longer.

This is the way in which I think that President Eliot has been led into error. He sees that some women take up teaching temporarily, or are interrupted in it by matrimony or ill-health; but he fails to observe that a still larger proportion of male teachers take up the occupation only for a year or two, after leaving college, on their way to a profession. These will certainly be teachers for a year or two only; whereas women, if not married, will be likely to remain teachers for many years. This goes far to explain Mr. Eliot's rather hasty inference.

In every place where I have served as school committee (three), the male teachers have been, as a general rule, of this last class. Even the High School principals have generally held office but a few years, and have then studied for the bar or for the ministry. Our High School in Newport has had five different principals during the ten years I have lived here, while the same assistant-teacher has remained throughout. She has been the constant and permanent element in the school, amid all these changes; and I can remember a precisely similar pleasing combination in each of the two other towns where I have served on the school committee. I had supposed it a settled principle, in New England, since Horace Mann's day, that women were employed as teachers not merely for economy, but from a recognized fitness. If this view is to be overthrown, it must be by stronger arguments than those advanced by President Eliot.—T. W. Higginson, *in N. E. Journal of Education.*

Books are instruments of self-culture.

EDUCATIONAL JOURNALISM.

No single sign is more indicative of the advance of teaching as a profession than the rapid progress during the past ten years of educational journalism. The school journal of the past was a monthly magazine containing thirty or forty pages of weak theorizing, poorly printed on cheap paper. It was always the "organ" of some superintendent or association, was edited in the spare moments of some hard-worked teacher, and was subscribed for as a matter of duty. The total expenses averaged perhaps sixty dollars a month; the total income, including book puffs, possibly fifty. The missing hundred was annually made up either by subscription or by contribution of those whose names appeared as editors; and when these sources failed, the publication ceased.

Of the scores of journals thus managed, a few have survived, have advanced with the times in labor, in enterprise, and in outlay, and are to-day excellent periodicals. Of these the *Ohio Educational Monthly*, better known to us as the *National Teacher*, is one of the best, the last number completing the fourteenth year of Mr. White's editorship. The *Pennsylvania School Journal*, the WISCONSIN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, and the *Illinois Schoolmaster* are worthy to be named together and to be read by every teacher.

But the day of local magazines is over, and school newspapers are taking their places. These require more capital, more labor, more influence; and the three are obtained by consolidating several weak journals into one which shall combine the strength of all. By publishing in newspaper form an edition of several thousand, the new journal is thus enabled to furnish more and better material at a lower price. Notable illustrations of this are the *New England Journal of Education*, which is heir of the five lately existing New England school journals; the *New York School Journal*, in which are united three New York city educational periodicals; and the *School Bulletin*, which has already swallowed up the *New York State Educational Journal*, and is calling, like Oliver Twist, for more. The demand for news, for pith and pungency; for what is considered *readable* now-a-days, is thus well met; and at once leaves us leisure to discover another want. Can we have a science of pedagoguy? Can we have certain principles laid down in cement, upon which we can build; but which we shall never need disturb? Can we have a medium for discussion of such principles by men who think for men who think? Can we have, in short, a medium which shall do for education what the quarterly reviews have done for literature?

We have examined the *Brooklyn Journal of Education* for April with reference to this possibility. It is nearly double the size of the ordinary magazine. It is handsomely printed on well chosen paper, and its articles, if not all of them up to the standard we have in mind (and the second and fourth are not by any means) are indicative of good things in the future. The general make-up of the journal is admirable; good judgment and good taste are everywhere manifest; and we shall look with confidence to future issues for articles of breadth and depth and character, and more exclusively pedagogical than the excellent contributions to the *Western*, of St. Louis.—*Syracuse Standard.*

MUSIC ON THE BLACKBOARD.

Lessons in music written on the blackboard the moment they are wanted are always more interesting to pupils than such as are contained in a book. The teacher should accustom himself to write with ease and rapidity, and should depend more upon the blackboard lessons than upon any others. The board should have the lines of the staff painted upon it, so as to save the time of the teacher. The staff, without clefs, should also be so cut into the slates of the pupils that it may always be ready for use when they are called upon to write what is sung, ss well as to sing what is written. The time which is occupied in writing a lesson is not lost in a well regulated school, for the pupils will watch the movements of the

teacher with interest, and will examine each note and character as it is written. It may also at times be desirable for the teacher to have his pupils name the tones as he writes them. No written lessons can possibly do away with the necessity for the blackboard. If all the teachers in the world should set themselves to writing lessons, and all the printers in the world should be employed to print them, and all the shops should be full of the books containing them, and all the pupils in the world should have all the money in the world with which to purchase all the books of printed lessons in the world, and every pupil should be furnished with a copy of every book that was ever printed, still the necessity for the blackboard would remain. It might indeed be superseded in part by a sufficiency of printed lessons, so far as practical vocal exercises are concerned; but yet of these it can never be given up by a good teacher; but even if it were given up for these, it would still be needed constantly for the illustration of such subjects as will be constantly coming up in teaching. The idea of giving up the blacboard is preposterous, and any one who entertains the thought of doing without one proves conclusively that he cannot possibly be a good practical teacher. Perhaps our language on this point may appear to be strong, but surely there is no subject on which we feel a greater degree of certainty than this. That the blackboard is an indispensable requisite in every well furnished school room, whatever be the subject taught, is the concurrent testimony of all good teachers in all parts of the world, in all departments of school teaching. It is needed, too, from the beginning to the end of a course; it is not to be used for a few of the first lessons, and then to be given up; its use is never to be wholly discontinued.—*T. F. Seward.*

THE WORD METHOD.—The wrestling between Mr. Webb of Michigan and Mr. Farnham of the Binghamton (N. Y.) schools, as to which is the author of the famous word-method still goes on. It is probable that now that the word-method has become so universally successful in teaching young children, that the honor of first discovering it is looked upon as distinction. It is only failure to keep pace with professional progress, and in fact absolute stolidity that still adheres to the old a b c method and its senseless accompaniment, ba be bi bo bu.

The *Home & School* calls attention to the fact that the Pestalozzian Primmer, published in Philadelphia in 1827, recommended that whole words instead of disconnected letters, should be first taught to the child. The plain reason for this is that words represent ideas, while letters do not, hence letters are meaningless to a child.

Also that M. Jacotot issued a French primmer that same year in which he recommended that children write in manuscript style from the first, and then he gives the following to the teachers who did not believe in his method: "Let them laugh at our method of teaching to read by words; do not waste time by attacking their ba be bi bo bu, but pass to the second lesson." Mr. Webb, or Mr. Farnham you should have published your system thirty-five years sooner.—*Iowa School Jour.*

THE LAKE-BASINS OF THE WEST.—In a memoir by Prof. O. C. Marsh, on "The Ancient Lake-Basins of the Rocky Mountain Region," published in the *American Journal of Science*, the formation of these basins is traced back to different epochs of Tertiary time on the evidence afforded by the fauna peculiar to each. The oldest of these Tertiary lake-basins are of Eocene age. The first discovered and best known of these Eocene lake-beds is the Green River basin, lying between the Rocky Mountains and the Wasatch range, in the depression now drained by the Green River. The fauna entombed in this Eocene lake indicates a tropical climate—tapiroid mammals, monkeys, crocodiles, lizards, serpents. The author cites, as an example of the Miocene basins, an ancient lake-bed lying north of the Black Hills. The fauna there discovered indicates a climate much less tropical than

that of the Eocene lakes, as is seen in the absence of monkeys, and scarcity of reptilian life. At the close of the Miocene a subsidence took place east of the Rocky Mountains. A great Pliocene lake was thus formed directly over the Miocene basin just mentioned, having nearly the same boundaries on the north and west (Black Hills and Rocky Mountains), but extending much farther east, and stretching south nearly to the Gulf of Mexico.

The fauna of this lake-basin indicates a warm, temperate climate. The more common mammals are the mastodon, rhinoceros, camels and horses, the latter being especially abundant.—*Popular Science Monthly.*

How to Secure a Higher Standard of Qualification of Teachers.

In an article in the August number of the *Educational Journal* for 1874, we proposed, as one method of obtaining the above result, that a system of lectures be adopted for the purpose of educating the masses on the importance of educating the youth of the land.

Our reason for thinking this would be a good plan, is because the masses control the schools. We educate the masses on political subjects because they have votes which decide political questions; but in school matters they have the vote without the intelligence to use it judiciously, and no effort is made to educate them. But instead thereof we cry out against the poor teacher who already comes up to the demand of those who control the school interest.

In the last report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, page 26, we find that the amount expended for Teachers' Institutes foots up $21,085.71. Add to this amount some $15,000 more paid to academies for instructing *teachers' classes*, and we have a sum large enough to employ several of the first lecturers and public educators in the State, whose eloquence would stir up the masses of the rural districts so that no compulsory education laws would be needed, and no teacher would be tolerated unless his qualifications were the best the country can furnish.

In order that I may not be misunderstood, I would say, I would not use the funds referred to if we can get the money to carry on the lectures elsewhere; but if not, let the Institutes and Academy teachers' classes go, and give us the lectures instead.—*The School Bulletin.*

"It is indubitable that everything impresses man either formingly or improvingly; so that, I think, not merely an assembly of people and of books, and great electric effusions in his heaven's equator discompose him, but also that damp weather unnerves him,—hence it is certain that no man can take a walk without bringing home an influence on his eternity; every spur, every star of heaven and of knighthood, every beetle, every trip or touch of the hand as certainly engraves itself upon us, as the gentle dewdrop, or the hanging of a mist affects the granite mountains. But just as certainly, on the other hand, is this assertion necessary: 'that the strength of every impression depends on our condition yesterday, to-day, and to-morrow.'" —*Richter.*

Causes of the Early Withdrawal of Pupils.

These causes, so far as the school management is concerned, may be assigned to two classes—the unavoidable and the avoidable.

Of the unavoidable causes may be named, first, *Poverty.* Many parents are compelled by this reason to withdraw thir children from school as soon as their services begin to have a pecuniary value. Second, *Indifference*—a want of appreciation of the value of the privilege of free education, on the part of the most ignorant and vicious parents. Third, *Lack of parental control*—a cause closely allied to the preceding, and, like it, resulting in a large amount of truancy and absenteeism.

Of the avoidable causes may be named:

First. *Defective organization and grading.* This cause we have been endeavoring to remove by a system of more frequent pro-

motions. The fact that a pupil who, from any cause failed of promotion at the end of the school year, was placed in a class a year behind the one to which he should have been advanced, resulted too often in his withdrawal from school. We have been working for the past year into a system of term promotions by which such pupils will be set back but one-third of a year. This plan promises success, so far as our circumstances of territory and population will allow it to operate. In the more central districts, where the grading of the schools is most nearly perfect, it can be carried out without difficulty. In the less central districts, where we are obliged to have schools composed of more than one grade, the multiplication of classes which would result, presents an obstacle that can not be removed, save by sending pupils to schools at inconvenient distances. So far as possible, however, the plan is being tested, and it is hoped that, when it comes to be understood by parents, many pupils will be saved to our schools who would otherwise have been withdrawn.

Second. *Injudicious discipline.* This cause, whether it arise from a lack of experience, a lack of ability to comprehend and deal with human nature as it is manifested in boys and girls, or a lack of the spiritual graces which win the confidence and love of pupils, result in frequent withdrawals.

Third. *Want of sympathy and co-operation between teachers and parents.* Elsewhere in this report will be discussed the relations of teachers and parents, with a view to some suggestions toward the amelioration of this cause of withdrawal.

Fourth. *The almost entire withdrawal of the masculine element from the teaching force of our schools.* This topic I desire to treat as delicately as possible, since my convictions on it contravene the policy pursued by the Board for several years, and since the man who speaks out on it, lays himself liable to be misunderstood and to be charged with unworthy motives. It is a subject, however, which demands your gravest consideration.

It is not to be denied that, under the management of women, the more obvious results of school discipline are as good as under that of men. Indeed, it may be admitted that in some respects they are better—that the influence of women is superior in toning down the inherent rudeness and boisterousness of the male portion of the school community, and in securing better outward observances of the rules of propriety. The presence of a cultivated woman appeals so strongly to the native spirit of gallantry in this portion of her charge as to secure a prompt compliance with demands the reasonableness of which may not be very apparent. In the business of instruction, too, the work done by women may be admitted to be quite as good as that done by men. In the examinations made for the purpose of testing the quality of this work, the results may be as favorable to the one class as to the other. The want of masculine influence, however, is one that is felt by the boys of our schools in an unconscious sort of way. There is an undefined and to them an undefinable want, that takes from their school life an element of zest that is essential to its greatest attraction, and lays the foundation of an unrest and disrelish that in many cases leads to an early abandonment of school with its privileges and promises of good. The time comes in the life of the school boy when his nature silently cries out for the strong and manly influence for which it hungers in vain in the school given over to the exclusive government of the gentler sex. Pupils of either sex need the influence of both sexes in that part of their education which has for its end the formation of character. In the first years of school life, the feminine influence should predominate; in the later years, the masculine. At no period should either be wholly withdrawn. Very properly, then, the primary schools may be placed in the charge of female teachers. It is only in the higher grades that the absence of masculine influence works as a cause of withdrawal, and then particularly in the case of boys. That this dual influence is needed for the complete and harmonious

development of character, is in accordance with the order of nature as it is evinced in the correlation of the sexes, and with the constitution of society, in so far as it is based upon nature.

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I think that I do not assume too much when I attribute the non-attendance of boys upon the later years of the school course, in part, at least, to the lack of the kind of influence and training here described. Or, should it not be very apparent, or easily demonstrable, that this cause operates in actual withdrawals, all that has been said upon it as it relates to the kind of work that should be done in our public schools, would still remain eminently worthy of consideration.

The remedy for these causes of early withdrawal are suggested by the statement of the causes themselves.

First. There should be greater flexibility in the course of study and in the system of grading the schools, and some provision should be made for those pupils, who, from their circumstances, are able to attend school but a portion of each year.

Second. Those teachers who, after a fair of trial, have proved themselves incapable exercising discipline, should be promptly retired, and great care used in the selection of their successors.

Third. Teachers and parents should thoughtfully consider their mutual relations and responsibilities, and permit no want of harmony to exist when it is possible to remove it.

Fourth. The employment of a larger proportion of male teachers in the higher grades of the schools, demanding always, as essential prerequisites, liberal culture and unblemished character.—A. T. WILES, *in Annual Report.*

TEACHERS should be very careful not to talk too much. They should question, and so make their scholars talk, and lead them to think and reason and inquire. The talking, except when instruction is given, should be mostly on the scholar's side.

EDUCATION IN THE CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION

The great Centennial Exhibition is to take place. It is to be both national and international in character. It will be a World's Fair. All this may be counted as settled. Enough leading States have signified their concurrence to make it certain that all will coöperate. As early as December last, twenty-two foreign governments had signified their intention to participate, and the notes of preparation were heard in others. The President has again urged upon Congress the importance of lending some aid, and it is to be hoped his application may succeed. But whatever Congress may do, the exhibition is to take place, opening April 19, 1876, the anniversary of Lexington, and closing on the 19th of October, the anniversary of the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown.

It will be the largest and most complete exhibition of our arts, our resources, and our civilization, we have ever made. We have taken part in the World's Fairs held in Europe, in England, France, and Austria, and have won some prizes which have gratified our pride, and given us courage. But it was the almost unanimous opinion of the Americans who were present at these great European exhibitions, that our country was very meagerly and meanly represented, and that we did not fairly maintain the rank so often and so freely claimed by us as among the foremost of civilized peoples. But the excuses for our inferior display seemed plausible, if not satisfactory. An ocean had to be traversed by our exhibitors, and American manufacturers had no pecuniary interest in the show sufficient to induce them to meet the trouble and expense. They had no hope to win a place in the European markets supplied with cheaper labor than theirs; and American inventors had more fears of piracies than hopes of patents. So we choked down our shame, and stoutly assured our critics that America could beat them if she would. But now the case will be all changed. We shall be on our own soil. A great central city, easily

reached from all parts of the country, will be the scene of the contest. Our manufacturers, inventors, and capitalists will be struggling to keep and extend their own home markets against all foreign traders.

The stimulation of a great national anniversary, the Centennial of our National Independence, will be upon us, and all our patriotism as well as our pride will impel the country to do its utmost.

OUR IDEAS AND INSTITUTIONS ON TRIAL.

We have challenged the notice of the civilized world, and we have done it in the name and behalf of republican institutions. The scores of thousands of our countrymen who have poured annually along the highways of European travel have not stinted to vaunt the power and wealth of the great republic; and our emigration agents have spread broadcast the praises of the art-promoting wealth-producing powers of American institutions.

The representatives and citizens of foreign nations will come by thousands and tens of thousands, to mark for themselves, with profound and sharp attention, the proofs we shall give of our real standing and advancement. Our country, our institutions, and our government will be on trial as they have never been till now —a trial, invited by ourselves, before the august tribunal of the nations. Not poor emigrants seeking a home, but the intelligent and cultivated people will visit this exhibition, and the presses of Europe will teem with their more or less calm and searching estimates of our condition, our arts, and our relative standing in the great family of civilized peoples.

AMERICAN EDUCATION.

Who does not see that in such an exhibition, American education must hold a most prominent place? Americans have gloried in the universal prevalence and high character of our systems of popular education. Our example has been quoted with approbation by European statesmen and journalists, and our leading institutions have been described by the European press. The magnificent donations made by private citizens for the founding of colleges and universities, have been told widely in the Old World, and have helped to increase the interest in our educational system. To make any small and inadequate exhibition of our school system will dishonor us and disappoint our friends. Thousands of spectators from the schools and universities of Europe will turn to this part of the exhibition with the keenest curiosity. No part of the display made by our country will be more eagerly looked for, or more critically examined. We cannot afford a failure here. If we are the intelligent, wisely-trained, self-governing people we have claimed to be, the style of people out of which a successful republic must be made; if our success in maintaining a free government is the result of our popular education—if indeed our people are superior to the masses of the old world monarchies, and our system of education is fit for a free people, this is the place to show it.

WHAT TO EXHIBIT.

We may trust to the well-known enterprise of our great publishers and manufacturers to make a full showing of the school books and apparatus for which our country is already famous. We have little to fear in this department either as to the extent of the exhibition or as to its intrinsic merit. The school books of America will bear comparison with those of any other country. In the department of primary instruction we shall stand unrivaled; but our success in that superior education is less certain. We must still, for a time perhaps, yield the palm to the old world in the text-books of the highest learning and in the finer apparatus of science.

The public spirit and honest pride of our various school boards, committees, and trustees will doubtless take good care to provide drawings and models of their elegant and costly school buildings. These were shown, to some extent, at Vienna. It will certainly be done to a grander extent and with a greater effectiveness here at home. Our school architecture will not shame us, though the styles of building may not always prove

to be in the best taste. The elegance, magnificence, and commodiousness of our palatial school-houses will challenge admiration, if not full approval.

Our energetic Commissioner of Education, aided by a host of state, county, and city superintendents, will take care that the long lines of school reports filled with the astonishing figures which number the grand army of pupils, the host of teachers, and the princely expenditures, shall not be wanting. Nor ought they to be too modest in blazoning upon maps, charts and schemes, of the most magnificent dimensions, the grand sum totals of those statistics of our school work, with every form of illustration and analysis, so that the most careless and cursory visitor to the exhibition may catch the gigantic facts.

Nor must the press of the country be left out. In the German School Department, at Vienna, the spectator saw spread out before him, rank upon rank, the splendid array of the newspapers of Germany. Let a similar exhibit be made here. The newspaper and periodical publications of the United States will not suffer from comparison with those of any other land. And to these should be added the books published in America. The real intelligence and intellectual activity of a country is best understood by the extent and character of the provisions required to satisfy its daily, weekly, and monthly hunger for the periodic issues of the press. The real fruitfulness of the American press has never been fairly and fully known. Let the great stream of American literature be shown in all its breadth and depth. But the most important part of the exhibition is yet to be mentioned. It is the show of actual results—the *specimens of the school work of the pupils.* Here lies our danger; and here, if active measures be not taken to prevent it, will be our failure. Some of us recollect the severe, but too just criticisms of the Austrian and other European papers upon this part of our exhibition in the Welt Austellung at Vienna. Our school-houses, school-books, and apparatus were praised most generously, but when inquiry was made for the work of the American school-children, the show was so poor and meagre as to wholly discredit the richness of our facilities of instruction. The fruits evidently did not answer to the magnificence of the tree.

In the German and Austrian school departments one saw in abundance the practical proofs of their school-work. From the little models in clay, the drawings, writings, compositions, etc., of the primary schools, and even the Kindergartens, to the splendid work of the great polytechnic schools, everywhere the eye met these exhibitions of school-work, affording a proof that no skepticism could gainsay of the real scope and excellence of German education.

Let the committees who may have the Educational Department of the Centennial in charge see to it that timely notice be given to the schools of the country to participate. Let schools of all grades, from the district school to the university, be invited to show their work. A little ingenuity will serve to classify and prepare instructions for this exhibition. It should be full, embracing, as far as possible, every department of the work; it should be uniform in plan, so as to render comparison easy; it should be adequate, not the work of a few choice pupils, but of whole classes, that some idea may be gained of the general efficiency of the system. We cannot in this article attempt to outline, even, the scope of this exhibition. Its necessity and importance all must see.

HOW TO EXHIBIT.

There is an "art of putting things." The most rich and abundant exhibition may fail if badly arranged. A small one may please and impress, if managed with skill. No small responsibility will fall upon the men who shall be chosen to marshal into order this grand exposition of the education of our country. Our space will not allow even hints, if hints would serve any good end. One prime requisite should be imperatively demanded, viz.: large, ample space. The American Educational Department at Vienna was felt by many to be very near a failure,

not so much from lack of material as from defective arrangement. It was cramped and crowded till it resembled a child's play-house, and all nobleness and grandeur of effect were lost. It will be madness to repeat this folly on our own soil.—*N. E. Jour. of Education.*

METHODS OF TEACHING SPELLING.

The recent revival of spelling-matches naturally leads to inquiries concerning the best methods of conducting the exercise of spelling in schools, and the relative amount of time that should be devoted to it, in the different grades.

We shall first speak of methods of study. Much time is lost, we believe, in the preparation of the spelling lessons. The study for a given lesson should be, mostly, upon the words which the pupil can not spell correctly when he begins the lesson. Some test to determine the unknown words should evidently be given. When the pupil takes his book in hand and scans the columns one after the other, in a mechanical way, he silently, or otherwise, spells all the words, those which he can already correctly spell as well as those which he can not. Now he should concentrate his study upon the words upon which he is at fault. How is the pupil to know which these words are? With his eye upon the printed page, he can not positively tell. If he tries to test himself by catching the word, then "looking off," it by no means assures him. The test should be given by the teacher, or under the direction of the teacher, before the lesson is studied at all by the pupil. The "missed" words determined, the pupil may then devote his time for the lesson upon those alone. There are several ways of testing the pupil's knowledge of the lesson before he studies it, which may be adopted according to circumstances. The teacher has not time, ordinarily, to test the pupil upon the words of the lesson, in advance of study upon the same. But they may be tried upon oral spelling by "pairing off" the pupils, pronouncing and spelling to each other all the words of the lesson, marking those that are missed. The pupils thus ascertain what words they need to study. Unless a pupil is beyond where he ought to be in his spelling-book, there will ordinarily be less than a quarter of the words which he cannot spell to begin with. If his list for study is reduced to these, he will be much more ready to master the smaller list, than as though the whole lesson was before him for study. Sometimes a word may be correctly spelled by guessing; to avoid this, the lesson should be spelled twice over, by which means the pupils' knowledge will be pretty thoroughly sifted.

The test by writing the words is better than the oral one, if time will permit its practice. The teacher cannot be expected to look over all the lists to mark misspelled words; but the pupils can look over each other's work, referring to the spelling-book for corrections. This, too, is a valuable exercise for them, being, in fact, an effective mode of study.

If there is any one at home to assist the learner by pronouncing the words either for oral or written spelling, it will be a great help to both pupil and teacher. There is no lesson more easily managed at home than the spelling. It requires no explanation, and is not a severe mental tax upon the pupil. Where the practice of home study is required, by all means let the spelling lesson receive attention.

In respect to the methods of studying the words, we may say that what is the best for one class of minds may not be so for another. Some learn anything quickly and permanently by repetition, without much assistance from the eye. Others look upon words, and even sentences, as pictures; and if one of the details is wrong, they instantly see it, without any conscious spelling of the words. We believe the training of the eye to be an important adjunct in learning to spell. Those whose eyes are quick and accurate will unconsciously learn spelling in ordinary reading. We believe that most compositors look at words as pictures, instantly detecting a mis-spelling. We frequently hear the best spellers say that they know just how the word looks on the page of the spelling-book where it occurs. While

some, then, will learn the words more readily by repeating the letters which compose them, others will do much better for themselves by *looking* at the word, the repetition of the letters being a minor part. Those who learn spelling in this way learn it for *writing*, the only way in which it is of practical value. It is the opinion of the writer that the word, printed or written, as it addresses the eye, should be before the pupil as much as possible. Words often missed should be written again and again. They should be upon the blackboard, not the incorrect spelling which we sometimes see, but correctly spelled, till the form of the word is indelibly impressed upon the pupil's mind.

In this connection we may appropriately refer to the importance which some teachers attach to learning the meaning of all the words studied for their spelling. We do not believe it advisable to attempt this. Definitions of words may be laboriously committed to memory, but their true meanings and applications are learned in later years, and quite independently of their spelling. The time to learn spelling is in youth, when the perceptive faculties are developing and the memory is active. Afterwards, one by one, in the progress of life, as the active vocabulary of words increases, the spelling long ago learned will come into use. We believe it to be a positive injury to young scholars to retard their acquisition of spelling by requiring them them to commit definitions which, quite likely, they no more understand than the original words.

When the "tidal wave" of spelling-matches now sweeping the country has subsided, we shall see that many of the prejudices against modern schools, as compared with former ones, will go with it; for, so far as accounts reach us, pupils now in our schools carry off the bulk of the prizes.—*N. E. Jour. of Education.*

CONTINUOUS SCHOOLING.

Whilst the school bill was under discussion in the Legislature of 1870, some member of the House of Delegates offered an amendment reducing the minimum length of the school term from five months to three. Another member was inclined to have no minimum, but to divide out the money among all the neighborhoods and let each school be continued only as long as the money might last. For a while the minds of the members appeared to be drifting strongly in favor of indefinitely short terms; but Major Bell turned the tide by proposing, as a still farther amendment in the same direction, that inasmuch as such schools could have no educational value, the local school officers be allowed, at discretion, to divide out the school money among the children *to buy candy with!*

The same point was repeatedly discussed in the Senate, and on one occasion a senator related the following piece of his own experience, which we give as we remember it. Said he: "A neighboring boy and I started to a country school together. Both his father and mine were farmers, but as a matter of economy he was sent to school only in the winter, and was kept working on the farm during the remainder of the year, whilst I was kept at school ten months in the year. Of course, I soon went ahead of my companion; and when I had mastered the studies of the school, I went to the Virginia Military Institute, and remained there four years. After graduating, I took charge temporarily of the same school where I had received my primary education, and whom should I find among the pupils but that same friend of my youth! And, poor fellow, he was still blundering along in Arithmetic, Grammar and Geography."

This is an impressive, but not a singular illustration of the difference in effect between long and short terms. Short schools are not worth what they cost, because they do not train the faculties, or impress the subject matter on the memory. Corn simply planted may yield something, but a profitable crop comes only of timely and repeated cultivation. Five months was fixed upon as the minimum term from a conviction that nothing less would insure durable impressions, or sufficient progress to guard the child from a Sisy-

plus operation like that of the boy in the above story. If the furnace is not kept in steady heat long enough to melt the metal sufficiently to take the shape of the mould, the whole operation is a costly failure. Schools become more effective each week of their continuance.

Old Frederick of Prussia, tyrant as he was, had a long head about schools, as well as other things. His school term was not three months, or five, but *twelve;* and school was kept seven days in the week—Sunday being the day for religious teaching. No holidays allowed. A few quotations from his law:

"As in many towns parents do not send their children to school in summer, on the plea that they have to guard the cattle; our magistrates and judges in the districts shall see that a special shepherd is engaged rather than allow the children to be kept from school. Where the houses are scattered far apart, and the cattle cannot be driven into one place to be guarded, one child after the other, if there are several in the family or neighborhood, shall alternately every day attend to the herds, and the inn-keepers and inhabitants of such towns shall make other arrangements by which each child can go to school ot least three days of the week, *that it may not forget in summer what it learned in winter.*"

"No week day vacations are to be given, *not even during harvest time.*"—*Virginia Educational Journal.*

The Relation of the Kindergarten to the Primary School.

Few people understand that a Kindergarten is not a Primary School. Many seem to think it is merely a process of sugar coating the usual primary instruction, whereas it is really intended to be a transition from home life to school life and to lay a foundation for the latter. At present Kindergartens are mostly private and their benefits confined to the children of the wealthy; but we hope ere long they will be at the foundation of our Public School system, and so far as possible, compensate for the want of culture in the homes of the poor and ignorant.

The number of thoughtful mothers is small compared with the thoughtless, selfish and vicious. In a country where schools are free, few parents can be found enlightened enough to support private Kindergartens, though twice the amount necessary may be spent in hurtful toys and sweetmeats by those who feel too poor to pay sixty or eighty dollars per annum, for this best kind of culture.

Among its numerous functions, the State recognizes a duty to repair, as far as possible, the faults of ignorant, poor and vicious parents. This duty is supposed to begin when too immature to attain that knowledge of the subjects needed by the teacher. The teacher usually takes the child when it is five or six years old. Two years previously it is left in the street, in dirt and confusion, learning profanity and obscenity.

Every teacher who takes these little ones from the street, will admit that the most difficult task she has, is to *undo* what has been done by street training. How much harder to eradicate bad habits of manner, speech and thought, than to teach reading and spelling! Could the money now spent in support of penitentiaries, public courts, and reform schools, be spent in the prevention of crime, would it not be wiser as well as happier?

Granting that Kindergartens are more expensive than Primary Schools, they certainly are not so expensive as High Schools. The benefit derived from the latter is by no means a general one, because poor people cannot afford to send their children to school after they are old enough to earn a living.

The cost of two years of primary schools should be considered also, as the Kindergarten retains the child until its eighth year. Some of us believe, too, that the child thus trained will make such rapid progress afterwards, as to save one or two years more in the amount of knowledge acquired, to say nothing of mental discipline and power to use knowledge.

The public Kindergarten should take the children, not only of cultivated parents, but those of the ignorant, just as they emerge from home to street life, and so train them in the good, the beautiful, and the true, as to make sin repulsive and crime impossible.

If the child learn thus to think, to express its thoughts in correct language, and acquires *habits* of industry, politeness, unselfishness, and *voluntary* submission to laws of order,—is not more accomplished for its future welfare and influence in society, than is now accomplished in the primary school, between the ages of five and seven? That the Kindergarten does accomplish this, all who have fairly tested it will admit; those who are unwilling to test it fairly surely have no right to criticize.

The Kindergarten labors under a disadvantage in appealing to the public eye, ear and purse, because it cannot be understood unless its system be carefully studied. People who visit it speak of it as "a pretty sight," "a cunning little school," or "a place to keep children out of their mother's way," but fail to recognize the systematic efforts of the Kindergarten to develop the child's nature from inward thought to outward action. Mrs. Browning's poetical resolve applies not less to those who study how to develop child nature:—

What form is best for poems? Let me think
Of forms less, and the external. Trust the spirit
As sovran nature does, to make the form:
For otherwise we only imprison spirit,
And not embody. *Inward* evermore
To *outward*: so in life, and so in art,
Which still is life.

How many imprisoned spirits struggle for embodiment, through misshapen lives, only the "Searcher of hearts" knows. Holy and beautiful thoughts abound in sermons, lectures and literature; but are they often embodied in beautiful lives? Why not? ANNA B. OGDEN.

MORAL INSTRUCTION.

This subject, we believe, should be of essential interest to every teacher, and yet how frequently it is entirely disregarded. While a theme of less importance pertaining to the future welfare of a pupil will receive at least commendable attention, this one, greater than all others, is never once noticed or considered. If the youth, committed to our care, are to be the men and women who will take our places in life's great struggle, and if they are to be qualified to fill our places with an influence for the "good and true," something more is required than intellectual culture. There will be characters to mould and hearts to instruct. Tender and susceptible minds and hearts are placed to the care and instruction of a teacher by parents, not alone for intellectual development, but for heart culture and building of character. Is this not a great trust? Is not the responsibility greater than we are willing to admit? Let us pause and reflect.

In the first place, we well know that the instructions and influences to which we were exposed in early life, and especially those attending our school-life, have, in a measure, impressed themselves upon our minds and characters, forming lasting impressions enduring through life. That many of those outward manifestations of insubordination and immorality which are so often made in society, owe their origin to the neglected culture of the heart, and the perverted moulding of character of early youth, the greater part of which is passed in the care of an instructor. How essential is it, that special attention be devoted to building of character and education of heart. How desirable then, that lessons and influences of the right kind, imparted in the right way, be given by every teacher, and that they should receive careful and thoughtful consideration, becoming of the first and highest importance in the schoolroom. That they should be of primary importance in public schools is evinced by the following extract, cited from the Regulations of the Boston Public Schools:

Good morals being of the first importance to the pupils, and essential to their highest good, instruction therein shall be daily given in each of the schools, and the principles of truth and virtue faithfully inculcated upon all suitable occasions. The pupils should be carefully instructed to avoid idleness and profanity, falsehood and deceit, and every wicked and disgraceful practice, and to conduct themselves in orderly and proper manner. It shall be the duty of the instructors, so far as practicable, to exercise a general inspection over them in those regards; and in all their intercourse with their pupils, they shall *strive* to impress on their minds, both by precept and example, the

great importance of earnest efforts for improvement in morals, in manners and deportment, as well as in useful learning.

Again, of the importance of moral instruction in public schools, a well-known educator expresses his convictions in the following language: He says, "the subjects of good morals and gentle manners are unequaled in importance by any that can be imparted in the public schools, either for intellectual discipline or practical utility. That moral instruction should be given as regularly, systematically and practically as instruction in any other department of science. That all schools should be places of true refinement and elegant culture, and that when they are not, they must be nurseries of vulgarity. That the self-control necessary for the good citizen must be based upon the principles and practice of a good school; for a school is but a state in miniature. And that the gentleman and lady must be distinguished by good manners, and that good manners are the outgrowth of good morals."

From considerations like these, which accord with the views of eminent educators, we are led to the conclusion, that the teachers of the public school should give careful and thoughtful attention to the subject of Moral Instruction. That they should, upon all suitable occasions in the most effective and agreeable manner, impress upon the minds of their pupils their moral obligations. Not only will they do a moral good, the most important of any, but will find, to govern pleasantly and profitably, they must teach their pupils, by daily recitation, their example to accord with what they teach, the elements of "Good Morals." While these thoughts are presented to the consideration of all teachers, more especially do they apply to primary teachers. It is with them the young receive their first and most important impressions, which will "grow with their growth, and strengthen with their strength." Then let teachers be builders of characters, which shall withstand the influences of wrong, and shine through all the vicissitudes of life, bright and untarnished examples of a wise instruction received at their hands. —*Cook County* (Ill.) *Teacher.*

THE TEACHER'S INFLUENCE.

That the teacher wields an influence in the formation of the character of the child second only to that of the parent, none can deny. That this influence exists without the will of the person is equally true; and that this power can be reined and made subservient to the will is plain to all. And because we can, if for no other reason, is it our imperative duty to do so? But why in regard to them, more than the great mass of humanity over whom we exercise this same negative influence, since our province is to educate the mental rather than the moral faculties? Because it is much stronger with them than with the mass, and how can it be that we owe it not to them to make it such as shall benefit them?

Its importance. We have claimed the teacher's influence second only to that of the parent. Such is its strength that every moral faculty is touched, and yet what are in themselves most insignificant and trivial circumstances go to compose it; thus the wearing of a soiled collar or ribbon will deaden the appreciation of the beautiful; or cheap jewelry and many colors vulgarize the taste; the habit of unpunctuality in ourselves will tend to form—nay will be the means of forming —the same habit in them; and thus will all our habits, tastes, and pursuits influence those of our pupils. The character of the future man is being formed, and every thought of ours, I might almost say, since words and actions grow out of thought, makes an impression on the soft mold that years and others influence will but partially efface. And were this influence to affect them alone the matter were less important, but what we make them, they in turn will make others, and they others again, so that our own moral nature is reproduced. I think this effect cannot be over rated. Who can forget Madam De Stael's immortal answer to Napoleon when asked how he could best improve his people: "Instruct the moth-

ers of the French nation." But in our land might we not with profit add, "and the *teachers?*" And if, as Josh Billings affirms, we are stepmothers (and fathers?) to everybody's children, may we at least have the consciousness that we have done our duty. *What is our duty?* Clearly to make the child what he should be to become the perfect man, physically, intellectually and morally. It is, however, the moral nature which is most touched by this quiet yet irresistible force, and it is this we should strive to bring out in all the beauty which it is capable of exhibiting; all the strength to which it can attain; all the power it can exercise. This we should train to be strong in its own individuality, to think, act, and speak for itself.

How can this influence be exerted? First of all let us *be* what we attempt to make the pupil. I cannot think he is worthy of the place who is not. Example is better than precept, but by either how can we teach what we do not fully understand, and how can we understand what is not a part of our life? I imagine I hear some one say there would be few teachers weighed in that balance and not found wanting. Granted, and yet dear fellow teachers is it not a just one? Whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well; more, it is a command of God: "Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with all thy might." With "line upon line" let us labor on and be not weary, for though from the lips of man we hear no plaudit, thrice blessed and sweet will our Father's "well done" be.

JEANIE LLOYD.

TREMPEALEAU CO.

STARTING A SCHOOL LIBRARY.

As the subject of Literary Culture is receiving some attention in your excellent magazine, I will give you the result of experimenting upon plans suggested by reading Prof. Westlake's article in a late number of the *Journal*. When I entered the school in which I am now teaching, I found that, although my pupils were naturally bright and promising, their *literary taste* was, to say the least, questionable. However attractively the dry bones of history were clothed, they rattled ominously and forbiddingly. It made them weary to contemplate reading a book of travels, while poetry was quite beneath their notice, and quite as intelligible as so much Greek or Choctaw. What to do to change the current of their taste was to me a sore puzzle. However, to prepare the way, I placed upon our "what-not" in the school-room all the books I had with me; and if any feelings of sadness crossed my mind at the thought of putting them into the hands of my pupils—for I hold the philosophy that books, like friends, must be appreciated in order to secure to them tender and careful treatment—I took consolation in the thought that what was my loss might be their gain. A curious glance into some of my books aroused their interest. Acting upon this feeling, I incidentally expressed a wish that it were possible we might secure a small school library. To my extreme surprise and pleasure, this idea was very cordially received, particularly amongst my "big boys;" and constituting ourselves a committee on ways and means, we went to work to accomplish the end desired. This brought to light an unforeseen difficulty. It had not occurred to me but that every parent would heartily co-operate with me in this project; but I soon found that the majority of the parents, as well as some of the directors, strenuously opposed the measure. They did not want their children to read; it would simply be inculcating habits of idleness. However, some of them, (Heaven bless them!) encouraged me with kind, appreciative words, and more substantial aid; and by dint of hard work and overcoming difficulties *ad infinitum*, we succeeded. And to-day I have the pleasure of seeing in our unpretentious little school library about forty volumes of select works for the young, and of knowing that each day increases the interest of the pupils in the books at their command. Our citizens are also quite as much interested, and desire that this should be the foundation not only of a school but also of a town library.—*Pennsylvania School Journal.*

SCOLDING IN SCHOOL.—If there is one thing incident to school afflictions more deserving of universal execration than all others, it is scolding. The teacher who indulges in this luxury degrades himself, his profession and his school. Better a thousand times punish a boy, suspend him from school, do many other things, than to scold. Where scolding is rampant, school government cannot exist. Both self-government and pupil-government are out of the question. They are crucified, dead, and buried. The weakest way to express dislike, to reprove, to enforce discipline, or do any good thing, or to correct any evil, is scolding. A scolding parent and a scolding teacher are two of the severest afflictions sent upon children. It is soul-torture. It snaps the affections of the child, it is a slow poison, it inexuberates the spirit, it demoniates the soul, and makes a cynic of an otherwise buoyant, free and elastic mind. This soul-hammering bruises and mangles the divine form a hundred times more inhumanly than all rods, and sprouts, and hits, and knocks, and peltings, and hidings, and raw-hidings could the body. Away with scowls, and howls, and mad eyes, and facial contortions, and badinage, and lawless tongues, about pupils in schools. There is a better way. Find it.—*West Virginia Monthly*

MISPRONUNCIATION.—It is possible that some one who reads the title of this article may find himself guilty of failing to pronounce *ci* like *sh* in shun. I find that my lady friend, who is very precise in her language, will persist in accenting *etiquette* on the first, instead of the last syllable. My good minister, who has the greatest aversion to anything wrong, was greatly surprised when I mildly suggested to him that *aspirant* should be accented on the penult, while my musical niece mortified me the other evening by pronouncing *finale* in two syllables. I heard my geological friend the other day explaining the *subsidences* of the earth's crust, but he should have accented the second, instead of the first syllable. The same mistake happened the other day to my friend, the president of the Reform Society, who spoke of the *vagaries* of certain persons, by accenting the first, instead of the second syllable. He also announced that I would deliver an *address* that evening; but I knew it was not polite to tell him to accent the last syllable. My boy says that he left school at *recess*, accenting the first syllable, and he was loth to believe that, whatever the meaning of the word, it should be accented on the final syllable. Then my friend, the president of the Debating Club, who is a great student of Cushing's Manual, tells us that a motion to adjourn takes the *precedence* by accenting the first, instead of the second syllable. My other lady friend says that she lives in a house having a *cupelow*. She should consult the dictionary for that word. But I will close by remarking that my legal friend, who is very scholarly, always accents *coadjutor* on the second, instead of the third, where the accent rightfully belongs.—*N. E. Journal of Education.*

SPELLIZOOTIC.—The following has been recommended, where this disease still prevails:

"The most skillful gauger I ever knew was a maligned cobbler, who drove a wagon, using a mullein-stalk as a weapon of coercion to tyranize over a caterpillar shod with calks. He was a Galilean Sadducee, and he had a phthisicky catarrhal diptheria, and the bilious intermittent erysipelas. A sibyl with the sobriquet of 'Gypsy' went into ecstasies of cachinnations at perceiving him separate saccharine tomatoes from ignitible queues without dyeing or singeing anything or charging a cent. A hemorrhage nearly paralyzed her as she received, with unparalleled embarrassment, an harassing courtesy, accompanied by mistifying, ratifying and stupefying innuendoes; bouquets of lilies, mignonette and fuchsias; a treatise on mnemonics; a copy of the apochrypha in hieroglyphics; daguerreotypes of Mendelsshon and Kosciusko; a kaleidoscope; a dram phial of ipecacuanha, from which she took a drachm; a teaspoonful of naphtha; a ferrule; some

licorice; a surcingle of symmetrical proportions, and a chronometer with a movable balance. She displayed some vacillation in evincing her preference, and said it was referable to an occasionally-occurring idiosyncrasy, and wofully uttered this apothegm: 'Life is checkered, but schism, apostasy and heresy shall be punished. There is notably an allegeable difference between a conferrable ellipsis and trysyllabic diæresis. He replied apologizingly in trochees, not impugning her suspicions."

THE ARCTIC REGIONS.—The Arctic Ocean has been explored, through the intrepidity of American seamen, to a point beyond any ever reached by ship before. The Polaris, under Captain Hall, penetrated by way of Smith's Sound, the route advocated by American explorers, to latitude 82 deg. 16 min. Here she was stopped, on the 30th of August, 1872, by floating ice, being a little more than four hundred miles from the pole. There was some difference of opinion regarding the possibility of pushing farther North, some of the officers contending that it was possible, and others that it was not. Captain Hall died on the 8th of November, 1872, from the effects of exposure undergone in an attempt to penetrate farther North by sledge. The ship was shortly after abandoned by the crew, which, after encountering great hardships, reached home in safety last Spring. One of the most remarkable facts made known by the expedition was the greater abundance of animal life found to exist as the ship proceeded farther North. Willows of comparatively large size, sorrel and grasses of several kinds, as well as many flowers of different colors, were observed in abundance at Polaris Bay, latitude 82 deg. Garnets—some of unusual size—were likewise found. In the Summer of 1873 Mr. B. L. Smith, in the Diana, succeeded in reaching latitude 80 deg. 58 min., longitude 70 deg. East, and discovered North Cape to be an island.

The Tegethof, of the Austrian expedition for the exploration of the sea East of Nova Zembla, has not been heard of since August, 1872, and may have solved the mystery of the "open sea." Nothing has been accomplished in the Antarctic regions.—*Los Angeles* (Cal.) *Schoolmaster.*

THE TOWN SYSTEM.

The following comes from the Secretary of the Town Board of Directors, of the Town of Anson, Chippewa county, which was one of the first towns to adopt the town system:

In the March number of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION I saw a communication from Mr. Fred. Tilke, of Prairie Farm, in which he states that they are under the Township System and have adopted a superior list of text-books which are to be bought by the town and sold at cost to the parents; and, on application, parents not able to buy them, are to have them free; and the gentlemen thinks that the town, by so doing, has taken the lead of other towns in the State in educational privileges. I think he is mistaken there, as the towns of Anson and Eagle Point, in the county of Chippewa, have been under the Township System ever since it was enacted in 1869, and have adopted text-books and established libraries and procured all new school apparatus, such as text-books, writing-books, ink, pens, crayons, slates, pencils, globes, maps and charts, all which are obtained by the secretary direct from the publishers and manufacturers, and are free to all the scholars attending school in these towns. This is one great advantage of the Township System. A saving is made by getting the books from the publisher of from 35 to 40 per cent., and on all other articles, from 25 to 33⅓ per cent., which includes school furniture of all kinds.

Another great advantage of this system (and one which can be seen at a glance) is that the taxes in towns under this system are very light compared with towns under the old system, especially in northern part of the state where one-half of the lands is owned by speculators who are generally non-residents. These lands include valuable pine forests, and under the old system the owners of such lands very seldom, if ever, have any school-tax

to pay, but under the township law, the school tax becomes a general tax over all the town, and each and every owner of real estate or personal property is taxed according to the value of said property.

And there is another advantage derived from the township system; it is the duty of the secretary to visit each school in the town twice during each term, to assist the teacher in arranging and classifying the school, and to see that it is conducted in a proper manner; also that the register is kept correctly so that district clerks will have no trouble in making out their reports. There is a great complaint with county superintendents about the deficiency of the reports of town clerks. Now the fault must be with district clerks as the town clerk or secretary has only to copy the reports of district clerks which they certainly should do without making mistakes; and to prevent district clerks from making mistakes in this town, the school board has entered a proviso in their rules to have every teacher at the end of the term make a report giving the census and general and special statistics and text-books (the same as is required of each district clerk) which shall be attached to the register so that the clerk has simply to copy it off on to his blank form. It takes but little labor on the part of the teacher to make such a report, and by a little labor on the part of the county superintendents they could get the same adopted in every district under their jurisdiction and save a great deal of fault-finding on all sides.—J. W. Thomas, *Sec. of School Board Directors.*

The Office of State Superintendent.—The duties of this officer involve an amount of care, anxiety and responsibility of no ordinary character. The management and superintendence of nearly four thousand school districts, with more or less official intercourse and correspondence with over twelve thousand town and district school officers and clerks of boards of supervisors—supplying them with school laws, blanks and dictionaries, —returning their reports for correction of errors, so that their districts may not lose their share in the State School Fund apportionment—deciding appeal cases, with an earnest wish and aim to render equal and exact justice to all—hundreds and thousands of letters, upon almost every conceivable subject relating to common school jurisprudence, to answer—some requiring specific points of law to be determined, and many simply calling for judicious advice to settle and harmonize discordant elements—to keep informed, and properly study the school systems of our own and other States—circulars to prepare and send out to the towns and districts—statistics to collect and arrange—the annual and special reports to make, together with a large amount of miscellaneous labors and duties to discharge,—if all these matters, when faithfully performed, do not demand of the State Superintendent, and his assistant, the most constant care and unceasing labor, then I confess I have yet to learn in what care and labor consist.—Report Hon. L. C. Draper, 1858.

Aimless Education.—Here is a rich man's son who has been educated at great expense and pains, and who has graduated from college, and has come out a gentleman. He has studied not with a view of fitting himself for any avocation in life, but with the view of being a gentleman. He reads, not for the sake of knowing anything, but for the sake of being a gentleman. Soon his father breaks down; and he, when he is about twenty-five years old, finds himself a poor man's son, and dependent on his own exertions. And he says to himself, "What shall I do for a living?" He asks his feet, and his feet say, "I do not know." He asks his hands, and they say "I do not know." He asks his head, and it says, "I never learned anything about how to get a living." There is but one man that can befriend this poor wretch, and that is the sexton. Could anything be more useless than such a person? Can there be anything more pitiable than such histories?

If you have a bright thought express it in the simplest manner.

ON IDIOMATIC TRANSLATION—II.

BY PROF. F. W. ALLEN, STATE UNIVERSITY.

The first general head under which to consider the idiomatic rendering of Latin, is the equivalence of words. It is very common for the pupil to get it fixed in his mind that any given Latin word has such or such an equivalent in English, and to translate it by this in all connections: thus, *mitto*, "send," *res*, "thing," *res publica*, "republic." Now no doubt every word—or nearly every word—has its primitive signification, which can be traced through all its derived and secondary meanings, and nothing is more important than to get this primitive meaning indissolubly associated with it, and see how its variations are carried out in detail. I know one vocabulary in which this correct principle is carried out into the practical absurdity of starting the beginner in Latin with such definitions as these: "*Mitto*, I cause to go," followed by half a dozen lines of meanings, with "send" among the last. This fault results from a reaction against the common fault already mentioned.

This study of primitive and derived meanings is a part of the study of the language itself, and does not come properly under the topic now under consideration—idiomatic translation. For this purpose the original signification will no doubt help, but the main thing is to determine what English word will best express the meaning in this particular place. Thus *res*, which primarily means "thing," is seen by most boys to mean "affair" also, and this is the meaning that comes uppermost in their minds. The range of meaning, however, which this simple word takes in its various connections, is imposing—*res militaris*, "military science," *res Romanae*, "Roman history," *res publica*, "commonwealth, common welfare, public life, politics," and so on. The simple examples will sufficiently illustrate the importance of having something different in the boy's head from the stereotyped meaning of a word.

It is hardly necessary to call attention to the numerous cases in which the pupil is led astray by the resemblance of the word to some English word of a cognate, but not the same meaning; as, *occupo* [to take adverse possession of], "occupy;" *obtineo*, [to hold against all claimants], "obtain;" such as these are matters rather of etymology than of idiom. So too will double derivations from the same word, as for instance *refero* may be Englished as well by "refer," from its principal theme, as "relate" from its superior theme.

A very common perplexity arises from the substantive use of adjectives. There is often hardly any difference to be made in English between the render of the adjective and the abstract word; thus *utilitas*, "expediency," as an abstract idea, hardly differs by a shade from *utile*, "the expedient;" while *utilia*, objects which possess the quality of expediency, may in many connections be rendered precisely the same, "expediency." All adjectives, but especially possessives, may be used substantively in the neuter with a range of meaning which is very puzzling to beginners. *Non meum est*, "it is not my way;" *nostra*, "our property, productions, interests, opinions," etc.; *suum cuique*, "to each his due."

Verbs do not in general present so many difficulties in the way of idiomatic rendering. Participles abound in them, but they will come in more appropriately under the head of construction. A very important and much neglected consideration is the reflexive use of the Passive, which is often as much of a Middle, as the corresponding form in Greek. *Ferrum inutile cingitur* is no passive: "he girds on [to himself—a dative reflexive] etc." There are numerous verbs in English which are both transitive and intransitive, but which in Latin use the Middle Voice to represent the English intransitive; *movere*, "to move," (transitive), *moveri*, "to move," (intransitive); *flectere*, "to turn, (transitive), *flecti*, "to turn," (intransitive).

Of so-called expletives there are not many in Latin, as compared with either Greek or German; let the pupil beware,

however, of regarding them as of no account. *Quidem*, ordinarily rendered by the insipid *indeed*, has always a restrictive force—*to be sure*, or something like this: "this is so, to be sure, BUT (*sed*) etc." So with the Ethic Dative, which always requires a circumlocution to convey its force. *Tongilium mihi eduxit*—"he carried off Tongilius, I am glad to say." Other peculiar renderings of pronouns, as *idem*, "at the same time," *ipse*, "very," are easily noticed.

In my next paper I will take up the more difficult and important subject of idiom in construction.

DEFECTIVE DEFINITIONS.—"Ma, I didn't get a hundred to-day."

"Why, Gertrude, how did that happen?"

"It was those good-for-nothing definitions."

"What was the matter with the definitions?"

"Why, teacher had us write sentences with words that were defined."

"Well, you did as she wished you to, I suppose."

"Yes, I thought I did it right, too; but teacher said it wasn't. I believe it was though."

"I expect your teacher was right. But tell me how it was."

"Why, you see I was to write a sentence with 'rectified' in it. Well, the book says 'rectified' means 'corrected.' So I wrote: 'The father rectified his son.' Now, ma, wasn't I right? I meant the father corrected his son,' and the book says, 'Rectified, corrected.' The teacher said I was wrong, and she marked off one from my grade, and if it hadn't been for that, I would be a hundred."

The *Schoolmaster* thinks Gertrude deserved "to be a hundred." The fault is in the definition rather than in her use of it. There are many such definitions in school books. Almost every teacher receives sentences from his pupils apparently as ridiculous as the above, and yet the literal definition has been followed.—*Los Angeles* (Cal.) *Schoolmaster.*

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

DISTRICTS.

Q. The order for the formation of our district was made Feb. 7, to take effect April 12. But the supervisors called a first meeting Feb. 27, and we met and elected officers, etc. Was this legal?

A. No; a meeting of the district could not assemble until after April 12, for the reason that until then no district existed.

Q. If our meeting and organization in February was invalid, can a meeting now be called, it being more than 20 days since the order took effect; or must the supervisors make a new order for the formation of the district?

A. The supervisors should have called the first meeting before the 2d day of May, but they still have power to call one, and they should do it, without any further delay. The requirement to call the meeting within 20 days is simply directory, and the failure or neglect to call the meeting within that time by no means precludes the calling one afterwards.

Q. Our new district was formed in July, but our first meeting was not held until January. We then organized, and voted taxes for school and school-house, and the district clerk and treasurer proceeded to assess and collect them. Was this legal? Some resist the payment.

A. It was legal to organize, and to vote taxes at your "first meeting," but as it was not a "special meeting," the taxes should have been returned to the town clerk, as provided in section 62. The clerk and treasurer of the district had no power to assess and collect a tax thus voted. If you had simply organized, and then adjourned, and afterwards had called a special meeting, you would have come under the provisions of section 64. As the school-law stands, it is defective in not making provision for such a case.

Q. If from any cause, the town board, or a quorum, are unable to meet at a time previously appointed for the alteration of a school-district, can another meeting be legally appointed, based on the same or original petition?

A. Certainly; a petition is no necessary part of the proceedings. The supervisors may meet and act with or without having been petitioned to do so. But it is essential that due notice of any such meeting be given, as provided in Sec. 10.

Q. In the fall of 1873 a new district was formed, and in the summer following, received its share of State school money, in proportion to its number of scholars. Some claim this was illegal. How is it?

A. It is a case provided for in Sec. 60. The scholars of the new district or districts from which the new one was set off are to be regarded as having taken the claim to a share of the money *with them* into the new organization, and the town clerk did right in giving the proper share to the new district. This provision of law is supplementary to section 12, in regard to division of property. Such school money, though in a sense due, is of course not on hand to be taken into account as property to be divided, when a town board forms a new district between the date of the annual district reports and the distribution of school moneys. Hence the provision of Sec. 60.

Q. If the district fixes the time for the school to commence, is the board bound by the vote?

A. The law does not specifically empower the district to determine this matter; but only the length of the term or terms. The board might not be able to find a suitable teacher by a certain day.

Q. In the formation of a new town part of our district went into that town, and now it is contended that we are not entitled to the taxes on that territory. Is this so?

A. No; the taxes must be paid just the same as if no new town had been set off. Neither your district nor the rights of your district are in any way affected by the change of town lines, except that you thereby become a joint district.

Q. When a district is to be extinguished, under section 16, must notice be given, to the district or districts to be enlarged, and can the order for attachment to other districts take effect under three months, if the consent of the board or boards is not given?

A. It is proper that the notice be given; and it may reasonably be held that the order is not to take effect for three months if the consent is not given. There might be good reason to be given why the attachment of territory to a particular district should not take place, or why the order of attachment should not take effect at once.

DISTRICT OFFICERS.

Q. I called a special meeting as clerk—only 5 came—I asked one present to act as chairman—he declined—requested me to serve—I called the meeting to order and a vote was taken on the business proposed. Is the action legal?

A. It is not illegal because no chairman was appointed in a more formal manner. If the voters acquiesced in your acting as chairman, the vote taken, so far as that goes, is legal.

Q. Must a clerk in all cases make affidavit—as for instance in applying for a dictionary—will not his certificate answer the same purpose? It is often quite inconvenient to find a justice of the peace or notary.

A. The law might be so changed as to require him to qualify, or take an oath of office, and then make his certificate sufficient verification of official acts; but as the law stands, he must make his affidavit in all cases where it is required.

Q. Is the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION the private property of the clerk who subscribes for it?

A. No, being paid for by the district, it is the property of the district. It is for the information of the board generally, and like other books or papers, pertaining to his office, should be turned over by the outgoing clerk to his successor.

THE SCHOOL BOARD.

Q. Can the board have a few days lacking to complete 5 months made up on Saturdays?

A. Yes, by arrangement with the teacher. The law does not prohibit school on Saturday, but merely says, though it says in a very blind way, that

in settling with a teacher, Saturdays are not to be counted unless otherwise provided for in the contract. It is *lawful*, (though the law evidently intends to discourage it), to *contract* to have school taught on Saturday, or half the day, or every other Saturday; and a contract which is silent on the subject of Saturday (which in that case is excluded) can be altered by mutual agreement of the parties.

Q. Can a contract be considered legal, unless a copy of the teacher's certificate is attached to it, and must I, as clerk, draw orders to pay the teacher, if the certificate is not so attached?

A. The contract is good, although a copy of the certificate be not attached. The copy of the certificate is for information, and is a precaution against paying out money unlawfully; but should a clerk have doubt whether the teacher was "qualified" (from the absence of the copy), the production of the original certificate would settle the question.

Q. Is it legal for the clerk and director to hire the clerk's son, at $25 a month, when a good female teacher can be had at less money?

A. The transaction would not be illegal, but such things are quite improper, and are apt to give dissatisfaction. If the other two members of the board wish to hire the clerk's son, and it is acceptable to the district, then the objection disappears.

EXAMINATIONS—CERTIFICATES.

Q. May an examination district consist of any other number of towns than four?

A. It cannot legally contain more, but of course may have less. The number of towns in a county may not be divisible by four. The restriction is designed to protect teachers against the inconvenience of going too far for examination. The permission to have four towns in a district better enables the superintendent to get through the work in season, in large and populous counties. In small or new counties, with few towns, it may be better to have an examination in every town. This enables the superintendent to be more thorough and to impart special instruction, as it may be needed, in connection with examinations.

Q. Can a county superintendent annul a certificate on account of non-attendance upon an institute?

A. The proper reasons for annulling a certificate are the same as those for refusing one, namely, lack of moral character, learning or ability to teach. The bare fact of absence from an institute would not necessarily imply either of these deficiencies, and might be unavoidable. A superintendent has a large discretion, but it is presumed he will exercise it judiciously. Causeless and willful absence from an institute might be one of several indications of a character unbecoming a teacher.

Q. Would it be legal and proper for a county superintendent to offer to renew six months licenses on condition of attendance upon the next Institute? Also to grant licenses upon the same conditions to those who barely failed to get them at the last examination?

A. As non-attendance is not in itself a sufficient legal bar to obtaining a certificate, attendance, in and of itself, should not procure one, or a renewal of one previously given. It is quite proper, however, for a superintendent to call attention to the fact that those who make it a point to attend Institutes and to improve themselves generally, must be regarded by school officers and all intelligent persons (other things being equal) as the better class of teachers; that in the long run preference will naturally be given to such teachers; that the advantages of an Institute, well improved, must increase the probabilities of obtaining certificates, or renewal of certificates, at any subsequent examinations, and that needless absence must necessarily have some influence upon the superintendent's estimation and recommendation, and upon the judgment and action of intelligent school boards. It is also quite proper to remind teachers that a "certificate of attendance" is given to members of Institutes, and is a good thing to have and to hold, in connection with a certificate of qualification.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

TOWN LIBRARIES.

The free library ought everywhere to be an adjunct and supplement of the free school. The knowlege and culture obtained in the latter are at best only a beginning. The time spent there is too brief, and the development of faculty too limited to justify us in calling it more. A large part of that time is devoted to the acquisition of the mere art of reading the printed page. This art is often but imperfectly acquired. Some knowledge of arithmetical processes and of geography is added. When the pupil has left school he is simply possessed of some of the keys of knowledge and culture, but not of much knowledge and culture themselves. His chief key is the knowledge of reading. With this properly used by him all things are possible. He may leave school when a mere boy, he may be poor and without influence, and his days may be filled with labor, but if he has a thirst for reading he can get unto himself through books a kingdom of knowledge, of thought and of happiness. He may rise from obscurity to fame, from a humble forge to a great pulpit, from a stone mason to one of the first geologists and authors of the age, from a barefoot mill-boy to a senator of peerless eloquence; or he may with keen intellectual vision and a rare fund of acquired knowledge, be known no further than the boundaries of his own town. However this may be, he secures his kingdom. He becomes no common man. He sees what others do not see. He thinks as others do not think. He owns the world. The centuries are his. He is rich in his knowledge, in his thoughts, in his emotions, in his means of recreation, in his means of solace. This is what a man may get and may become through books.

Wise men everywhere know this. The founders of our own State were wise men and hence knew this. They accordingly made provision, as they supposed, not only for common schools, academies, and normal schools, but for *suitable libraries* for the same.

The wisdom of this provision has been widely recognized in other States. Yet it is both a singular and melancholy fact that while State systems of instruction have been very effective in the organization and management of the school, they have generally failed in the organization and development of the equally useful and important library. If our own school system has imperfections, it is nevertheless vigorous and promising. It is likely to fairly accomplish the ends for which it was designed. Our library system, on the other hand, has been from the beginning nearly a piece of incompetence and uselessness. While the schools are to-day exerting a powerful influence in the State, the libraries are exerting little or no influence. They are not to be found at all in the great majority of the districts. The number of both libraries and books is steadily diminishing. From over 40,000 volumes in 1850 there was a decrease to only little more than 16,000 in 1874. In the latter year there were reported in the *twenty-four cities of Wisconsin only* 1,840 *volumes*, worth less than $3,000—a paltry and disgraceful showing. This condition of things would be peculiarly disgraceful were it not that it is also found in other States. Notably in the State of New York the school library system is an increasing failure, as here; and that too with an annual distribution by the State of pecuniary aid for its support.

The cause of this failure is familiar to all who have investigated the subject, and can be told in few words. *The school district is too small a unit of territory in which to establish and maintain a library of sufficient size and vigor to command respect and care, and hence to secure its continuance.* This is the chief difficulty. The district system that is injurious to the schools is nearly fatal to the libraries. The township system which would be useful to the former is indispensable to the success of the latter.

In 1859 the Legislature of Wisconsin actually passed by a large majority (51 to 10 in the Assembly, and 19 to 3 in the Senate) one of the most admirable library laws that ever found a place on the stat-

ute book of a State. This law would probably be conferring its incalculable benefits upon the State to-day if it had not met violent and untimely death by the opening of the civil war two years later. It is the earnest hope of the present State Superintendent that he may aid in securing the re-enactment in substance of this wise law which was so creditable to the intelligence of the Legislature of '59 and to the enlightened zeal of his distinguished predecessor, the Hon. Lyman C. Draper. The history and character of this law will be set forth in the next number of the JOURNAL.

Our Educational Interests at the Centennial.

The success of the Centennial Exposition next year at Philadelphia seems assured. It promises to be an enterprise worthy of the Great Republic and of the age. It will probably surpass in many important respects all preceding exhibitions of the kind in the Old World. Whatever may have been the doubts, the indifference of States or individuals heretofore, there appears now no longer reasonable excuse for them. Both common sense and patriotism now urge every State, every community, every citizen to warm wishes and to vigorous action for the success of what the nation is pledged to, what the world will throng to, and whose success or failure will assuredly bring common glory or disgrace to the whole country.

The duty of Wisconsin is then clear. She must make at Philadelphia the best possible showing of her growth, her industries, and her resources. And she can make an excellent and creditable showing. Considering her age no other State should make a better one.

Among the various interests from whose representation the State can derive honor, Education is not the least conspicuous. Whether in the character of her general system of public instruction, in her general educational growth, in the excellence of individual schools, in her school architecture, or in the ability and enterprise of her teachers as exhibited in State and local associations, we believe Wisconsin is surpassed by very few States East or West. In the important matter of her Educational interests she must be honorably represented in the Great Exposition.

The State Board of Centennial Managers has divided the various interests of the State into forty-three classes or groups. Class 36 comprises "Schools, Colleges, etc., including succinct history and statistics of the Educational system of the State." The State Superintendent has just been appointed by the Board to supervise and arrange for the Exposition the interests of this class. He has accepted the appointment with a determination to labor for securing an effective and creditable result. The successful attainment of this end can be secured only by the earnest co-operation of the Teachers, Superintendents and other school officers of the State—a co-operation he has no doubt will be cheerfully, and, if need be, laboriously given.

The JOURNAL will keep its readers fully posted upon the progress of this enterprise. Meantime we invite and urge thought and discussion, on the practical question of how our educational interests may be most appropriately, tastefully and effectively represented. If there is a chance here for originality let us by all means not be servile imitators of others, but independent artificers of our own peculiar success and honor.

STATE TEACHERS' EXAMINATION.

The examination of candidates for State Teachers' Certificates will be held at Madison, commencing at the time prescribed by law, namely, the second Wednesday of August (the 11th), 1875, at 9 o'clock A. M.

The Board of Examiners for the current year consists of Prof. S. S. Rockwood, of Whitewater, Prof. George Beck, of Platteville, and Prof. C. F. Viebahn, of Manitowoc.

Applicants for certificates will be examined in the following branches of study:

(1.) For an *unlimited* State Certificate,

the branches of study now required for a 1st grade county certificate, with the addition of English Literature, and the rudiments of Botany, Zoology, Chemistry, Geology, Political Economy and Mental Philosophy. Applicants for this grade must present satisfactory evidence of successful teaching for at least *nine* terms.

(2.) For a *limited* (five years) State Certificate, the branches of study now required for a 1st grade county certificate, with the addition of English Literature and the rudiments of Mental Philosophy.

Applicants for this grade must present satisfactory evidence of successful teaching for at least *three* terms.

Applicants who fail in any of the branches required for either of the above certificates, may present themselves for examination in such studies within one year. A re-examination in the branches in which they were successful will not be required.

All stationery needed will be furnished by the Examiners.

If a sufficient number of applicants should desire an examination at Eau Claire at the time of the session of the State Teachers' Association, the last week in July, arrangements therefor can probably be made, if such applicants immediately notify the State Superintendent of their wish. It is hoped, however, that the examination at Madison may meet the convenience and need of all. The business of the Association will merit and should receive the undivided attention of all who attend.

Strong considerations of self-interest and self-respect should urge teachers to seek the independence and assured position which these certificates give. It is hoped and expected that there will be a good number of applicants the present year. It is alike the interest of the State and the profession that these certificates should be largely sought for.

EDWARD SEARING,
Supt. Pub. Inst.

MADISON, June 1st, 1875.

PRESIDENT ELIOT has an admirable educational article in the June *Atlantic*.

WISCONSIN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

It has been decided by the Executive Committee to change the time of holding the Twenty-third Annual Session of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association, at Eau Claire, from July 6th—8th, to July 28th—30th, 1875. It is thought that this change will accommodate a large number of teachers who will wish to attend the meeting of the National Educational Association, at Minneapolis, Minn., August 3d—5th.

Full announcements as to the Eau Claire session will be made in due season.

J. Q. EMERY, President.

THE INTER-STATE ORATORICAL CONTEST.

One of the editors of this JOURNAL having been present at the recent contest of young orators at Indianapolis, a few words respecting that event may be expected and desired by our readers. It would be agreeable to us, did time and space permit, to present somewhat in detail what we saw, heard and thought; but the stern destinies that control editors forbid.

Representative contestants from six States—Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Missouri—were the justification of the term "Inter-State." These contestants had each won the first position in contests previously held in their respective States, and had thus become the representative champions of those States in this greater and final contest. The orations presented at the latter were the same that had won victory in the former.

The audience that greeted the speakers in the spacious Academy of Music was all that could be desired—large, intelligent, sympathetic. The stage was filled with official dignitaries of the State and city, including the Governor, Judges of the Supreme and other courts, a United States Senator, etc., etc. The address of welcome by Gov. Hendricks was cordial, graceful, scholarly, and every way appropriate.

The six orations of the contestants were upon the whole good, judged by the proper standard of comparison. They should

not be compared with the orations of Demosthenes, Burke or Webster. Young gentlemen of twenty are not expected to display the intellectual power of twice that age. Their thoughts are less profound, their style more crude, their personality less strong and impressive. Webster at twenty would have made no figure in the Senate, Demosthenes at that age would have been a feeble opponent of Philip, and Warren Hastings would not have trembled at the peroration of so youthful a Burke.

Did the young men at Indianapolis do well as young men? They nearly all did. One in particular, who received the first prize, showed remarkable skill and power in declamation. His effort in this particular could not easily be surpassed. Coming last on the list, appearing at a late hour (between 10 and 11) before a partially exhausted audience, he banished every feeling of weariness, aroused the attention and interest of all, provoked applause at intervals during his speech, and at its close such a spontaneous and hearty manifestation of approval as showed he had cast over his auditors the spell of a master, albeit a youthful one.

As a purely intellectual effort, the cool judgment pronounced this oration possessed of immaturities, in common with the others; but there were many fine and graceful thoughts, and the audience was doubtless substantially unanimous in approving the award to it of the first prize. Two or three others were probably equal to it in point of thought, but its delivery was far superior to that of the others.

The first prize was awarded to J. M. Coultas, of Illinois, and the second to T. M. Graydon, of Iowa. In the opinion of the Wisconsin judge the second place should have been given to Mr. McLeod, of Indiana, who made a very vigorous and manly speech; but the qualities that go to make up success in oratory are so imponderable, and the tastes and judgments of men so differ, that unanimous opinions from different men are hardly to be expected except in cases of very pronounced superiority of merit.

Mr. Mills, the representative champion from Wisconsin, held the attention of the audience well. He exhibited a good voice, a graceful presence, and all the elements of a successful speaker. His chief fault was a departure from true simplicity in his delivery, an apparent straining after effect through unnatural tones and emphasis.

The first Inter-State contest may thus be considered as eminently successful and encouraging. We hope and believe that good will result from this rivalry between the colleges. Whatever directs public attention to these higher schools of learning is a blessing. Whatever tends to give increased interest to literary culture therein is a blessing. Whatever tends to make men (and women too) elegant, clear and forcible in the written and spoken use of our noble English language is an unmixed blessing.

THE SUMMER AND FALL INSTITUTES.

The approaching Institute season promises to be one of unusual interest and profit. Many applications have been received, and many assurances of a large attendance have been given.

We are gratified at being able to announce a distinguished accession to our already excellent force of Institute conductors, in the person of Hon. John H. French, LL. D., ex-State Superintendent of Vermont, author of French's Series of Arithmetics, etc. Dr. French has had large experience in Institute work in New England, and is a man of superior ability and attainments. He will give his entire attention to educational interests in Wisconsin during the month of August, and probably September.

The Institute programme will soon be issued. All superintendents who desire to have State aid for their Institutes should send in their applications at once, if they have not already done so.

We have received a well-written letter from "a subscriber" complaining of the article in the May number, "The Township vs. the 'Deestrict' System," as holding Irishmen up to ridicule. It did not

occur to us that the writer of the article had any such intention—and we have some Irish blood in our veins—but we supposed he sought merely to enliven the discussion of the subject by describing some incidents of a laughable nature. It is very far from being true that incompetent district clerks, or the use of whiskey, are confined to any nationality, but it may be said of an Irishman, that he seldom lacks wit though he may lack learning, and that he is at least amusing in his cups, if he does not get so far as to become quarrelsome. We are quite sorry the piece should have hurt the feelings of any reader. We share with the writer in admiration for the generous and brilliant qualities of the Irish race, and have a belief that it has yet a future before it.

A Tour of Wise Men.

A deputation of distinguished Wisconsin teachers has just made a tour of observation among the schools of the Eastern States. President Arey, of Whitewater, President Albee, of Oshkosh, and Prof. Parker, President elect of the River Falls Normal School, with one or two others, constituted the party. It was the intention of the State Superintendent to accompany them. He had made nearly all arrangements for so doing, including the purchase of railway tickets, when he found that his official duties rendered a protracted absence at this time of the year impracticable.

At the present writing Presidents Arey and Albee have returned, but President Parker is continuing his observations somewhere in New England.

The trip is understood to have been a very pleasant and profitable one. We trust that some of the results of their observations may soon be presented to our readers through the columns of the JOURNAL.

WE are indebted to A. J. Pattee, of Stevens Point, for concise answers to Questions in Mathematical Geography, but the subject has been so fully discussed that it seems unnecessary to give more space to it.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF THE ANGLO-SAXON LANGUAGE. By STEPHEN H. CARPENTER, LL. D., Professor of Logic and English Literature in the University of Wisconsin, and Author of "English of the XIVth Century." Boston: Ginn Brothers. Price $1.25.

The fact that our language grew out of the Anglo-Saxon, though recognized theoretically, seems hitherto to have borne little fruit. The older and mother tongue has indeed been pretty thoroughly investigated, and its character and history, and considerable of its literature presented to the literary world by such scholars and antiquarians as Jacob Grimm and Leo, Bosworth, Wright, Kemble and Thorpe, and more recently by the "Early English Text Society;" and of late years some attention has been paid to the subject by American scholars, among whom are Dr. Marsh, of La Fayette College, Pa., and Prof. Corson, of Cornell University. But Dr. Carpenter is one of the first of them to examine the language in the light of utility rather than of curiosity, and to make its study attractive. His book, which prompts us to something more than an ordinary "notice," embraces an Elementary Grammar and Selections for Reading, with Explanatory Notes and a Vocabulary, and though brief, will enable the student who has some linguistic attainments and aptitude, to take up the study successfully, and further evolve for himself what the Professor gives the clue to.

The time is not far off probably when some knowledge of this mother-language will be deemed a necessary part of the furniture of the scholar, and we may look for some new light to be shed by its wider study on our English tongue, especially on many unsettled points and seeming anomalies in its grammar. For it should be remembered (which has not been done evidently by most of our multitudinous grammar makers) that the real and primal stock of our language, both as to vocabulary and grammatical structure, is Saxon. This language, like all others which have ever grown into

importance, was a fusion of kindred dialect. Not only did the Teutonic tribes from over the sea which so largely displaced the Celtic ones, consolidate under one government, but at a still earlier period their dialects blended and produced a literature, of which the poet Cædmon may be considered the founder. In his hands and those of his successors the language assumed strength, consistency and considerable refinement, and in process of time underwent those changes which resulted in the outgrowth of the English tongue. But whatever the original tongue has gained from Norman French, Latin, or other sources, has simply been grafted upon the old stock, which, although it has grown largely and borne much fruit of new flavor, still preserves and shows clearly its original characteristics. To illustrate this we give a specimen or two of the language, and attempt a literal and in part interlinear translation. The first is a part of the sermon on the Mount (from the Saxon N. Testament) which Prof. Carpenter introduces as a first reading lesson:—

Ge synd eorþan sealt: gyf ðæt sealt awyrþ, on ðam ðe hit gesylt biþ? Hit ne maeg syðan to nahte, buton ðæt hit sy ut-aworpen, and sy fram mannum forfer candel-stæf, ðæt hit onlihte eallum ðam ðe on ðam huse synd. Swa onlihte eower leoht beforan mannum ðæt hi geseon eower godan weorc, and wuldrian eowerne fæder ðe on heofonum ys.

Ye are of the earth the salt: if the salt is worthless, with what shall it salted be? It can afterwards amount to naught but that it be out-cast, and be by men trodden down. Ye are of the earth the light; not can the city be hid that beeth upon a mountain set; they do not light their light-vat and it under a vessel set, but upon a candlestick, that it may lighten all them that in the house be. So let shine your light before men that they may see your good works, and glorify your father that in heaven is.

The Saxon alphabet is mainly the same as ours, but embraces two letters (ð and þ representing the two sounds of *th*) which were not continued in English. *J q v* and *z* are wanting. Prof. Carpenter includes *k*, but it must be rarely used as we cannot find an example. *C* seems to take its place, and always has the hard sound, as in folc and cyn for folk and kin. Instead of qu cw is used. In consequence of these alphabetical differences the written language has a less English-like appearance than would otherwise be the case, but in a large majority of words the identity of root in Saxon and English will readily be discovered. The English is also considerably a less inflected language than the Saxon, and therefore uses more words.

From another reading lesson we give a few lines of Saxon poetry, as a specimen. They are taken from Cædmon (died 680), who sang of the Creation, the Temptation, Fall and Redemption of man, and many other biblical themes. The lines below are from his account of the destruction of Pharoah and his host. Although not written in regular meter, each line is made up of couplets, and the alliteration will be noticed—for instance of *f* in the first line, and *g* in the second. This feature is usual in Saxon poetry, and is somewhat akin to rhyme. The thought is bold and eminently poetic, and the diction terse, even to baldness:

SAXON.

Folc wæs afæred flod-egsa becwom
Gastas geomre geof deaðe-hweop.
. . . . . .
Streamas stodon; storm up-gewat
Heah to heofonum, here-wopa mæst.
. . . . . .
Wæs seo hæwene lyft heolfre geblanden;
Brim berstende blod-egsan hweop.
. . . . . .
Witrod gefeol
Heah of heofonum, handweorc Godes.

ENGLISH.

Folk was afraid flood-fear coming
Ghosts forlorn gave death-whoop.
. . . . . .
Streams stood; storm up-went
High to heaven, host-cry most.
. . . . . .

(Now) was the blue sky with gore stained
On the sea burst in blood-fear a cry.

. . . . . .

Doom-rod fell
High from heaven, hand-work of God!

This extract we suppose to be of older date than the previous one. The entire account of the escape of the Israelites and the destruction of the Egyptians fills several pages.

The conviction long felt is renewed by looking over this volume, namely, that we ignore altogether too much the sinewy Saxon side of our language. Few writers can resist the conventional custom of sliding largely into the Latin vocabulary; but one will notice that when a man talks in earnest, he generally goes back to his Saxon.

We commend the Doctor's book to all teachers and students who are not content to tread always in the old and monotonous paths of study, and we take pride in seeing so many evidences of literary fertility in connection with our university.—P.

GRADED SCHOOL READERS. (First to Fifth.) By THOS. W. HARVEY, A. M., Author of "Elementary" and "Practical" Grammars. Wilson, Hinkle & Co., New York and Cincinnati.

The points especially noticeable about these five new and beautiful books are these: first, they are strong and durable, the paper is fine and white, the type large and clear, the imprint uniformly good, the illustrations of really artistic excellence, and the whole appearance neat and attractive without being showy—designed for use rather than for mere ornament. Second, the matter and method evince the skill of an experienced and conscientious teacher. Third, they are expressly and admirably adapted for graded schools, and preserve the happy medium between too few and too many books, between meager and redundant lessons. The selections in the higher books are fresh and made in good taste from a wide range of literature. But what particularly pleases us is the admirable adaptation of the lessons to the capacity and to the tastes of school children. Metaphysics, political economy and sermonizing are all good in their way, but are mostly thrown away upon the boys and girls in their reading lessons; and yet a good wholesome moral tone is everywhere felt. We say success these books like these, and they are sure to win it.—P.

GRADED SCHOOL PRIMARY SPELLER. (Same author and publishers.) This speller which is nothing more than a speller, and is to be followed we suppose by one or more of higher grade, exhibits all the mechanical excellence of the Readers, and is judiciously compiled as a first spelling-book.

CHRISTIAN ETHICS; or, The True Moral Manhood of Life and Duty. A Text-Book for Schools and Colleges. By D. S. GREGORY, D. D., Professor of Moral Science in the University of Wooster, (Ohio). Philadelphia: Eldredge & Bro. 12mo. $1.50.

This work is written from a true Christian stand-point, and therefore inculcates the most wholesome views of morals and of moral duty. The analysis is clear and logical, and despite a somewhat stilted style, it is an attractive book, and cannot but do great good, as far as it obtains a circulation. We hope therefore it may be widely used. If Wooster University imbues all its graduates and students with the principles here taught, it will have done the State and the world a good service.—P.

AN OUTLINE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. By BENSON J. LOSSING, Author of "Field Books of the Revolution," etc. New York: Sheldon & Co. 12mo., price $1.25.

This book covers about the space that can be gone over in most of our common country schools, or in the grades below high-schools. Mr. Lossing is most favorably known as a graphic writer on American history, and no one presents the subject more vividly. The book is got up in fine style, and is most elegantly illustrated. Indeed school-books are rapidly becoming the most beautiful ones we have, and their very forms cannot but exert a refining influence upon the young.—P.

LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE.—The June Number opens with the concluding paper descriptive of a trip "Up the Parana and in Paraguay." C. Grenville Murray tells how Henri Derbley became a soldier during the days of the Conscription. "The Symphony," by Sidney Lanier, is a poem far above the level of magazine poetry. Wirt Sikes gives a free and very readable account of the French Blousards at their mask balls, etc. "Eight Hundred Miles in an Ambulance," by Laura Winthrop Johnson, describes a wagon-ride across our western prairies. Robert Wilson contributes a vivid sketch of a storm at sea. Sarah B. Wister tells us how a person without art-education is apt to feel in visiting the great art-galleries of Europe. "By the Lake" is a short love-story, by Ita Aniol Prokop. T. Adolphus Trollope contributes a paper on "A Scene in the Campagna." "Three Feathers," by William Black, reaches a happy conclusion. There are some verses by Edward Kearsley, a criticism of "Mill's Essays on Religion," by Lawrence Turnbull; some very entertaining "Monthly Gossip," and the usual able reviews of the Literature of the Day. This is one of the very best of our Magazines, and a new Volume begins with July.

LITTELL'S LIVING AGE is giving some uncommonly attractive papers and serials at this time. Among the latter are "Fated to be Free," a sequel to "Off the Skelligs," and "The Abode of Snow," a graphic and entertaining account of journeyings among the Himalyas, which enables one to realize in a measure the wonders of that stupendous mass of mountains.—Littell is always fresh and readable, and it pays at any time to order back numbers. A new volume begins with the beginning of every quarter.

A CHANGE.—The firm of Hadley & Bros., (Chicago), has become Hadley Bros. & Co., Mr. Theodore T. Gillingham having entered the firm. They will carry on a wholesale and retail book and stationery business. Hadley Bros. & Kane will continue business as manufacturers of school furniture, and dealers in school supplies generally.

SCRIBNER absorbs "Old and New," from this time, and thus adds to its strength and popularity. The late editor of the above periodical, Edward E. Hale, will be a contributor to *Scribner*.

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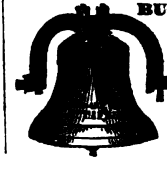

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WISCONSIN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

VOL. V. JULY, 1875. No. VII.

EDUCATIONAL FALLACIES—I.

BY PROFESSOR MARAN.

That knowledge is a more important aim in education than power.

A more radical mistake never mislead human effort. Its evils are wide-spread. From the common school to the college its debasing, withering influence is felt. Thousands of teachers believe in its truthfulness, conform their practice to its narrow requirements, administer the daily modicum of facts for the memory, make no appeal to original thought, to imagination, to taste, to expression, seek continually to "pour in" and scarcely ever to "draw out," and in ineffable ignorance, thoughtlessness, or misconception call this work "Education." Parents inquire what *knowledge* is most useful for their children, precisely as they would seek to ascertain what trade or employment would be most profitable to them in a pecuniary view. This constant aim on the part of parents to give their children *knowledge* which is *practically useful*, and this constant effort on the part of teachers to make the youthful mind a repository of simple geographical, or mathematical, or scientific facts, is destructive of all true progress in education—yea, defeats the very highest and truest end of education. Let us closely examine this matter.

Man is endowed with certain powers of mind and body, and it is a law of his being that these powers are developed and strengthened by exercise. The law applies as well to a mental as to a bodily capacity. For a healthy, symmetrical and full development of body there must be continued exercise of all the muscles, and of all in due proportion. This development cannot be best attained in any manual pursuit; it can seldom be well attained at all in such, for it generally produces an irregular development, bringing into excessive action certain portions of the body and leaving others undeveloped through inaction. The best means, then, to secure physical strength and harmony will be found in the varied discipline of a gymnasium which seeks as its sole aim the education of the body —which has no end in other utility than the immediate object of bodily excellence. This truth respecting the physical organism has still greater significance when applied to the mind. For exercise here strengthens in an equal degree, and in proportion as the mind is superior to the body is the full and harmonious development of the one nobler and more desirable than that of the other. The mind may be considered as composed of various faculties—reason, imagination, language, &c., and it is by the exercise of all of these, and their consequent development, that true intellectual education is attained. Here again exercise should have no object beyond that of the gymnasium—the sole object of general strength and power.

Here alone should be the measure of its utility. Of course this rests upon the assumption that a full and harmonious development of all the bodily and mental powers is the best possible preparation for all the general activities of life—an assumption I think no one will venture to dispute.

Not only is the popular proverb "knowledge is power," untrue in the general sense in which we are considering it, but I contend that not even in the acquisition of knowledge is power always necessarily to be found; for some important kinds of knowledge involve in their reception little or no exercise of faculty, while on the other hand, matters insignificant in themselves, as subjects of knowledge, are after all powerful as means of development. In physical culture the apparatus of the gymnasium is useless except to confer added power of muscle. It can be used neither to plow, nor to sow, nor to reap. It gives us no bread, it coins for us no money, and when our object in its employment has been attained it is to us so much valueless lumber. So also in mental culture, the Algebra and Geometry, the Latin and the Philosophy which we use to strengthen the more noble and important intellectual powers may be, as matters of knowledge, almost useless—may be simply intellectual dumb-bells, vaulting bars and boxing gloves with which we develop the mind into such a varied activity that we walk the earth in power, seeing through no glass darkly, but face to face, the realities of life, penetrating into mysteries, sealing with firm step all difficult hights, defying obstacles, exorcising all the grim giants that beset the pathway of weakness, and being, in a word, men, in body and in soul, vigorous, athletic, courageous, clear sighted, fertile in resources.

This idea of power as the true end of education, this idea of study as simply or mainly a mental gymnastic, is the one entertained with few exceptions by the most eminent minds that in all countries and in all ages, have given their attention to the subject. The experience of centuries has also demonstrated its correctness. Among the few exceptions, the most eminent opponent of this view in modern times is that very dangerous because very interesting and very fallacious thinker, Mr. Herbert Spencer. A leading exponent of that narrow philosophy which scarcely recognizes any spiritual nature in man, he discusses the great questions of education in the light of material advantage. With him the most important question is "what *knowledge* is of most worth," and after proving as he supposes that the knowledge of science is more valuable than any other, in the practical relations of life, he very coolly but very illogically assumes that this knowledge is equal or superior to all other in its disciplinary result. One of the many fallacies of Mr. Spencer consists in tacitly assuming the premise that the main object of education is *knoweedge* instead of *power*. His argument should have sprung from the question "What studies are of most worth in developing men fully and harmoniously to meet all the purposes of their existence?" Starting from this he would have reached a very different result.

It is, however, my object neither to review Spencer nor to enter into further discussion of this important fallacy. I wish, before leaving it, simply to express the opinion that teachers cannot too carefully bear in mind the true object of their efforts—that object so significantly expressed in the very etymology of the word Education—the drawing out and strengthening of latent powers by their proper exercise. A teacher's success is poorly measured by the amount of knowledge he imparts or succeds in getting the pupil to retain. If, however, by means of study and recitation and intercourse with the teacher, the pupil's faculties are aroused to independent action, if he is made thoughtful, accurate, self-reliant, persevering, ambitious, teachable, able to communicate thought in simple and fluent language—then may the instructor shout 'Io triumphe!' or anything else significant of joyful success, even if these glorious results have come from nothing but a study of the multiplication table and all

the book knowledge that accompanies them can be told in a breath.

It should be the object of the teacher, therefore, not to see how many facts, how many rules in arithmetic, or pages of geography can be learned and repeated in a given time, but how much in that direction can be done that is consistent with the highest exercise and development of the pupil's powers of observation, of reflection, of judgment, of expression, of taste, of habits of accuracy, diligence, &c. In my humble opinion the want of a clear and constant conviction of this truth is one of the most fertile of all the causes that work failure to teacher and taught.

REVERENCE IN THE TEACHER.

BY GEORGE HARPER, A. M.

Our public school system being chiefly concerned about the mind and its faculties takes but little account of the heart and its affections, leaving the care of these to parents and to spiritual teachers. And in fact people in general are apt to value more highly the possession of *gifts* than of *graces* on the part of their children. They prefer that they should be smart and knowing and likely to outstrip their companions in the "race for life" rather than that they should be pious, generous or amiable in disposition. Hence, that element of human character, which controls and gives tone to the rest—the emotional or religious—is not unfrequently left out of account altogether in the training of youth. In too many instances, children thus grow up hardened against all moral and religious influences, often utterly devoid of all reverence for anything human or divine—in the language of scripture "neither fearing God nor regarding man,"—and the sad consequences are but too apparent everywhere around us. And until this most serious defect is sought to be remedied, the spirit of our education must remain narrow and utilitarian. In one way or another, provision must be made for cultivating the noblest part of our nature, out of which are the "issues of life," that, namely, which connects us with the spiritual world and allies us with the angels.

Of late years more especially, the results of scientific research have been so grand and imposing, and have contributed so greatly to our material comforts and prosperity, that, intoxicated by the apparent benefits conferred upon us by such means, we are apt to become blind to the necessity of seeking to extend our conquests in any other direction. We forget that there is a higher conquest to be achieved—the conquest over ourselves—which can only be obtained by the indwelling of true religion in the heart. Without this, can our life be other than a life without love, and an activity without an aim? In this respect, have we not in a manner followed the example of the early discoverers of this country who, in their blind thirst for gold, neglected agriculture and the industrial arts? In the race for a purely intellectual culture which shall yield us the spoils of science and the profits of business, we have too much overlooked the higher spiritual elements of our nature. This course, as all history shows, cannot be long pursued, either by nations or individuals, without corresponding loss and damage to the moral condition, and consequent deterioration and decay. The great empires of antiquity so long as they retained the simple and sincere worship of the gods inviolate, enjoyed prosperity, but when they began to lose all genuine reverence for things sacred and became corrupt in their manners and language, their power began to wane and the period of their ultimate decline and fall was not far distant.

One of the bitter fruits of this absorbing and all but exclusive devotion to material advantages seems to be a widespread scepticism in regard to the truths of religion, whether natural or revealed. This result is but too apparent in much of our current literature, as well as among too many of our public men who seek rather to aggrandise and enrich themselves than to promote the welfare of the country. Even in the pulpit itself, we

often find a great want of true reverence and in its place a shallow, flippant, self-complacent priggism which is anything but promotive of genuine piety and devotion on the part of the worshipper. The hungry sheep look up and are fed not with the "sincere milk of the word," but with thorns and thistles and pestilential weeds. And it is greatly to be feared that too many of our public school teachers also are infected with this irreverent, unbelieving spirit. The writer lately saw a paragraph in a California paper which stated that the great majority of public school teachers there appeared to be quite indifferent to all religious influences; and it may be that in other States their spiritual condition is not much better for at the present, owing partly to the causes already specified, the spirit of ungodliness is but too general and wide spread among all classes of the community.

If it has been well said that "an undevout astronomer is mad;" with how much greater truth may it be affirmed of an undevout teacher of youth? The former has to deal but with material bodies which are transitory in their nature, destined one day to sink in years and forever disappear; but the latter has to mould and fashion immortal spirits which shall exist, as they are so moulded and fashioned, after sun and planet and star have passed into oblivion. Of all created objects, the human mind, with its vast capacities which only begin to be expanded in the present state of existence, is the most wonderful and mysterious; nor with all our boasted progress, do we know much more of its real character and essence than when the Stagyrite first began 2,000 years ago to unfold its laws and to speculate upon its illimitable powers and capabilities.

One of the highest functions of this wonderful entity, the mind, and one moreover which sufficiently attests its divine origin and destiny, is the sentiment of unselfish love and reverence for whatever is great and noble in human character and conduct. The sights and scenes of inanimate nature which partake of the beautiful sublime—the mountains, the valleys and the resplendent rivers—we regard with admiration; but we do not love and reverence abstract qualities merely, but the being to whom they belong. We love and reverence *persons;* and the persons or beings thus adored ever indicate truly the character of the worshipper, for between them there is ever the closest affinity. Change the object of our worship, and more effectually than in any other way, you at once change our whole thoughts, feelings, desires and aspirations. It is the rudder by which our whole being is moved and to which it ever most readily responds. Not more readily does the needle answer to the pole. Need we wonder then at the tireless activity of zealous missionaries of the cross who speed over land and sea to *convert* men, and thus to bring them, as willing servitors, under the sweet but powerful influence of a better law than the law of sin and satan under which they naturally grovel.

When we become capable of really esteeming and reverencing good and worthy qualities in others it may in a manner be said, that we "are not far from the kingdom of heaven." We thus rise as it were from the creature to the creator, and become capable of appreciating, in some degree at least, the perfect character of our divine model. The good and truly great among mankind, though separated by centuries of time, reared in different climes, and removed by distance, ever venerate kindred spirits. There is a beautiful engraving representing Daniel Webster visiting the birth place of the bard of Avon. The whole attitude of the figure, each limb, as well as every line and feature of the noble countenance of the great American statesman, lawyer and orator, express at the moment the utmost reverence and veneration for the "myriad-minded" Shakspeare whose sympathies were broad as humanity, and only equalled by his vivid and teeming imagination in which lay mirrored, as in a beautiful crystal prison, all the varied moods and aspects of nature as well as human nature. Who could portray in words the thoughts, feelings and emotions called

forth when such a pilgrim worships at such a shrine!

Robert Burns, the prince of Scottish poets, in visiting the tomb of a brother poet, Robert Ferguson, passed through a pleasant and beautiful country; but he turned neither to the right hand nor to the left to view the gay romantic scenery or to admire the rich mansions of the great and titled, but sought out, as the one object of his visit or worthy of his attention, the lowly grave of an unknown humble bard, which he found lying neglected and in ruins. Stooping down, he reverently uncovered his head, and with moist eyes, kissed the sacred sod which covered the mouldering remains of a congenial spirit whose untimely death and sad misfortunes had thus drawn forth the full sympathies of his large and tender yet impassioned heart. Nor did he leave the place until he had first made arrangements to have the grave rebuilt at his own expense, although always a poor man.

A fundamental and now well established principle is that our education, whether intellectual, moral or spiritual, ever naturally proceeds from the near to the more remote; and this, from cultivating a reverence for what is just and pure and of good report among men, as we find it recorded in the lives and actions of the good and great of all ages, we are insensibly led to contemplate the perfections of the supreme being in whom are hidden, in an infinite degree, all the varied excellencies of the wisest and best of mankind. Hence, possessing God, we are at once invested with all that the mind can conceive or the heart desire. From Him, who is the fountain of all good and the center of every excellence, come all possible gifts and graces of character which, embodied in human forms, constitute the beloved objects of our reverence and admiration. But inasmuch as mankind were not able, all at once, to receive high spiritual truths, they were gradually taught religion, or the fear and love of God, by a system of ceremonial observances, or what may be termed religious "object lessons," and were thus, by degrees, prepared for the advent of "God manifest in the flesh," which crowned and perfected the system of revealed religion. Thus Christ's true divinity never rests upon a firmer foundation than when based upon his true humanity.

Since this crowning revelation of the god-man, we are no longer left in doubt as to the true character of the deity or of our relations to him. We find that we are now entitled to call him *father*, and with this endearing name upon our lips, to draw near to him at all times as children to a loving parent, with true reverence and godly fear. This great doctrine of the *fatherhood of God* could never have become known to us in any other way; that is, unaided reason could never have discovered it. Nature, throughout all her wide domains, refused to disclose it. The everlasting rocks bore testimony to it; but until the light of revelation shone clearly upon them they were dumb and silent as the grave, though now eloquent witnesses to the truthful records of Moses. The ocean's deep-toned voice moaned it to the rushing winds which heralded the glad news from pole to pole, but in sounds which the versatile genius of man was able but feebly to comprehend. The lightning's bright hand flashed it, in letters of livid light, on the dusky bosom of the fast-flying storm-cloud, and the loud thunder rolled it to the listening caverns which answered in prolonged reverberations, but no skilful interpreter was near who could read the hieroglyphics of the sky or make known the interpretation. The sun's bright beams penetrate far into the etherial spaces, and intermingle their rays with those of the distant Sirius and many a far-off star which all are ruled by the same laws and governed by one Almighty Lord; yet even on the rapid wings of light, there comes back no message from the sister orbs—no intelligible intimation of a truth so dear to our hearts and so important to our best interests, and which God alone could *reveal* in his own time and way.

And it is this great and welcome truth of the fatherhood of God, coupled with the eternal sonship of Christ, that constitutes the essence of our holy religion

—a truth at once so simple that the most ignorant can understand and lay it to heart, and yet so dark that, as we are told, the higher intelligences of heaven regard it as a problem worthy of their profoundest investigation. Towards him, therefore, as towards a common center, must all hearts turn in reverential fear, as does every particle of matter gravitate towards its appointed center of attraction. But *sin* has entered in as a disturbing force, and *grace* alone can draw us back to the true center, where at length we are permitted and enabled to move in harmony and unison with the divine will and restored once more to our true relations with the Universal Parent.

It is the duty of every teacher, as well as of all others, with true feelings of reverence and veneration, to seek an interest in this great and vital truth of religion, —remembering, for encouragement, that whoever cometh unto him must believe that *he is* and that he is *the rewarder* of all those who diligently seek him.

It is sometimes said, that as we advance in knowledge and science, our reverence is proportionately diminished, until at length there is none left. In answer to this, it may be replied that our great educators have all been religious men in the truest and best sense, and as they waxed wiser they became more deeply religious or reverential towards the great author of the universe whose manifold and wonderful works proclaim a character at once so lofty and benevolent that the more they come to know of him, the deeper became their veneration and love. This was the case with Sir Isaac Newton who penetrated farther perhaps into the secrets of natures laws than any man that ever lived. And Sir Charles Lyell, the distinguished English geologist, lately deceased, contrasts the fleeting generations of man with the granite forms of the mountains at the feet of which he had wandered, and contrasts those mountains and man alike with Him who existed before, beyond and above them all; and he concludes his chief work with the contrast between the finite powers of man and the attributes of an infinite God, and he felt persuaded that after all the discoveries on earth or sea or sky the religious sentiment remained the greatest and most indestructible instinct of the human race.

SPELLING AND MISSPELLING.

BY PROF. J. D. BUTLER.

(Essay read at Spelling Match, in Madison, March 20, 1875.)

To spell well is no glory, but to spell ill is a positive shame. If our greatest boast is to spell well, what is it but to be proud that we tithe mint, anise, and cumin?

Spelling then may be compared to a crumb of bread. If it goes down the right way nobody notices it, but if it goes down wrong, it is noticed of course, but in a way no more flattering than the treatment of other garroters.

Poor spellers are the *majority*. One secret of their being so numerous may be that we learn to spell only through fear of disgrace, an ignoble motive, and are not moved by the stronger and more inspiring impulses of hope.

Another reason that poor spellers are legion is that they are not without plausible *excuses* and subterfuges. Texan illiterates fairly glory in their shame, and will tell you they would think a man a fool who did not know enough to spell a word in more than one way. Manitobans contend for two l's in wool, saying wool is so warm that it deserves to have every letter in it doubled.

Poor spellers are less ashamed because lexicographers disagree. Worcester gives us a list of more than seventeen hundred words which he declares only a part of those whose orthography is doubtful. *Pedler* is a specimen. There is good authority to spell that word either with one *d* or with two, and either with one *e* or with two. Thus Worcester brings forward manifold diversities of spelling and says, "Pay your money and take your choice." He proceeds in the spirit of that author who put no punctuation marks in the body of his book, but several pages of them at the end of it, inviting his readers to pepper it, each one for himself.

Who knows how to spell Shakspere?

Critics have disputed concerning this word, generation after generation. Thus far the only point proved seems to be that Shakspere himself did not know how to spell his own name. His indubitable autographs are divided against themselves, like the faces of our town clock, and so render confusion worse confounded.

> 'Twixt two doctrines perplexed
> O help us determine!
> "Watch and pray!" says the text;
> "Go to sleep!" says the sermon.

There is a volume in the collection of our Historical Society which shows the name, Shakspere, spelled in three thousand and five hundred ways. One would think all possible permutations were thus exhausted; but, no, one of our own townsmen has added to the never-ending varieties yet one more variation. Hon. Geo. B. Smith spells Shakspere B-a-c-o-n.

My mode of spelling Shakspere is *S-h-a-k-s, p-e-r-e.* In this form his name appears on the parish register at Stratford-on-Avon, in the statement of his baptism and burial, as well as of the baptisms of his children. This style of spelling then is official, if not authoritative.

Poor spellers are the more multitudinous because many of them, thinking it better to be guilty of two sins than to be detected in one, hide bad spelling by worse *writing*, as thieves will lie. Vices go in gangs.

One reason that nobody knows how to spell Shakspere's name is that, of the five extant signatures of that myriad-minded marvel, three—namely, those on his will—are beyond any man's ability to read, letter by letter. Clearly, like his own Hamlet, "he held it, as our statists do, a baseness to write fair."

A week ago a letter came to me from a college graduate, and one of the richest men in Vermont, which neither I nor any of the experts whose aid I sought, has been able to decipher. The chief end of that correspodent's writing is to conceal his spelling, as the chief end of Talleyrand's words was to hide his thoughts. Where writing is thus illegible, the poor speller, like the ghost of Shakspere's royal Dane, "is as the air invulnerable, and our vain blows malicious mockery."

Writers for the press are among the worst spellers. They flatter themselves that the printer will either spell their words right, or that they can make him their scape-goat—laying the blame of their ignorance on his typography.

But no man's bad spelling was ever defended better than that of General Jackson by John Randolph on the floor of Congress. It was charged, among other orthographical peccadilloes, that Old Hickory began the word Congress with a *k*. "It is true," said Randolph, "Jackson cannot spell. The reason is that he was fighting the British, while Webster was making spelling-books. Jackson cannot write, because he was not taught. Nor can Adams either write well. The reason is that he was not teachable. Jackson is ignorant, but he could have got over it, if he had only had a chance. Adams had a chance, but he was a natural born fool, and he never could get over it." Randolph's reward was being sent as Minister to St. Petersburg.

Spelling in high places is as far from immaculate *abroad* as at home. Among the lapidary blunders in Westminster Abbey, I read Ticonderoga spelled Ticonder*agoe*, Massachusetts with only one *t*, and Virginia with *e* for its second letter. Mistakes equally gross concerning the names of victories are inscribed on Napoleon's world-famous arch. No doubt England and Napoleon both pretended they would rather fall into worse errors than to waste time on orthographical niceties, either among Yankee rebels or vanquished foes.

Poor spellers in *English* are in truth more excusable than those in any other language. Our spelling is more at variance with our pronunciation than that of any other dialect in the world, or, as it is to be hoped, out of it. Foreigners are feelingly persuaded of this fact. The best ordeal of their proficiency in English spelling is to dictate for them to write the couplet.

> "Though the tough cough and hiccough ploughed me through
> O'er life's rough lough my weary way I go."

Germans who can stand this test are more rare than black swans, or than that good woman whom Solomon failed to find by searching among his thousand wives.

Spelling is corrupted by various *affectations.* Some of the *Smith* family, aspiring to be more aristocratic than the common herd, spell their name with a *y*; others add an *e*; and others, especially in England, insert a *j*, making it *Smijth.* Not a few try to dodge the labor of learning to spell by setting up for apostles of *phonetics.* But their attempt is mostly a failure. The world is not ripe for such a revolution as they would inaugurate.

Says Aaron to Moses, "Let's cut off our noses."
Says Moses to Aaron, "'Tis the fashion to wear them."

So it is the fashion to spell as men have spelled.

Another source of poor spelling is our proneness to spell so as to make words *descriptive.* Thus the name of the naval captain, Colvocoresses, was spelled by his men *Calico trowsers;* "Gentiles," in the text, "After these things do the Gentiles seek," is read *genteels* by some Sabbath School scholars, and would be so spelled; the first syllable of "hierarchy" is *high* in the spelling of those who associate it most with High Church; office holders make the first syllable of "patriotism" *pay*, because it pays so well. So also, many pronounce and would spell "education." *head*ication, because it does more for the head than for the heels. One of my professorial friends spells college with a *d.* He has an instinct that college ought to rhyme with knowledge, to the eye, as well as to the ear.

Poor spellers abound most of all, because their weakness is *hid* from their own eyes, as the ugliness of Queen Bess was from hers, when she no longer dared look in the glass and roguish maids of honor painted her cheeks white and her nose red.

In days long gone but by no means forgotten, I corresponded with a certain young lady who wrote a good deal about our separation. Her pen wrote separation with an *e* for its fourth letter, till I wrote her: "I am sorry to observe that you have more *ease* in our separation than I do, or can." Again, when she doubled the first *p* in apropos I wrote her it was natural for *pease* to be more plenty in spring at her Floridian home than in my New England. But it was seldom that I took such liberties. Cavils at wrong letters in a word, I knew well might have brought me the wrong *words* in a *letter.*

Few like to mortify us. Few friends are as faithful as the epigram which says to each of us,—as bluntly as Nathan to David,

"Thou mayst of double ignorance boast;
Thou knowst not that thou nothing knowst,"

at least in the spelling line.

The purpose of the spelling match this evening is to bring home to each of us the charge of the epigram. If the contest shall throw us to the floor, may we fall like Antaeus, who, when thrown down by Hercules, no sooner lay on the lap of his mother earth than he sprang up with double strength ministered by her humbling but vivifying touch.

ON IDIOMATIC TRANSLATION—III.

BY PROF. W. F. ALLEN, STATE UNIVERSITY.

There is one caution to be given those who are aiming at free, idiomatic renderings; that is, that it is very seldom permissible to vary from the *tense* of the original. The time, both absolute and relative, forms an essential part of the author's meaning, and any departure from it is almost certain to change his meaning radically. It is a fundamental principle of good translation to convey the author's meaning as precisely as language will admit; it is not even allowable to improve upon it. Still even to this rule there are some exceptions. The English language, by the aid of auxiliaries, admits in general of much nicer shades of meaning in the uses of tenses than the Latin; but in the relations of completed action, and of future time, in subordinate clauses, it is singularly remiss. Where the Latin, with careful precision, says *cum venerit, videbit*, [when he shall have come, etc.,] the English says off-hand, "when he comes." With this exception

the pupil can hardly be too careful, or the teacher too strict, in insisting upon retaining in the translation the exact time of the original.

In taking up the subject of idioms in construction, there are some so common and simple that they hardly require mention. The Dative of possession for instance, should regularly be rendered by a nominative, with "have," &c. The Objective Genitive should oftener be rendered by prepositions like "towards," "against," "for," than "of." The subjunctive of purpose may be generally rendered by the English infinitive; and the subjunctive of result—as well as those of cause and indirect question—by the indicative. So with the accusative with the infinitive, with the use of the conjunction "that." The Ablative Absolute often expresses what is really an active relation: *quibus rebus cognitis, arbitrabatur*, "after ascertaining these facts, he thought." The lack of a perfect active participle, in all but deponent verbs, makes this clumsy construction necessary.

Participles, indeed, whether used absolutely or not, give occasion for a great range of English idioms. The English language avoids the use of participles, preferring subordinate clauses and other circumlocutions. For example, the absolute use of the participle is hardly ever elegant: for "these facts having been ascertained" [quibus rebus cognitis], we say "after ascertaining these facts," or "when he had ascertained these facts." Curiously enough it happens that the one case in which the absolute construction is most properly used in English, is in rendering a construction equally foreign to the genius of the language,—the Greek or Synecdochical accusative, after a participle or adjective; *nudus membra*, "bare as to his limbs," is best Englished by "his limbs [*being*] bare."

Relatives present some very interesting examples of idiomatic use, especially in cases of attraction. It is very common for the antecedent to stand in the relative clause—the relative agreeing with it, as an adjective—being represented in the principal sentence by the pronoun *is*, or not at all. In this case, it should simply be transferred to the principal sentence, and omitted in the relative clause. But there is perhaps no class of Latin sentences so hard for the pupil to translate, as those in which the relative clause is subordinate in the second degree, as we may say; that is, in which the relative is not construed with the principal verb of its sentence, but with a subordinate one: *quibus ego ... si edictum praetoris ostendero, concident*, (Cic. Cat. ii, 3. 5.) Here the *quibus* would, in an independent sentence, be *iis;* and such sentences can only be turned into English by conceiving the form they would take as independent sentences, and giving this as nearly as possible—"WHO will fall prostrate, if I show THEM, &c."

The very common case of the relative standing for a demonstrative, introduces a whole class of idiomatic uses, all resulting from the fondness which the ancients had for connecting their sentences organically together, not loosely by conjunctions. It is a fundamental principle of the relative that it may perform the functions of almost any subordinate conjunction—conditional, causal, final, &c. When therefore we say *Quae cum ita sint*, the relative here is equivalent to *rerum* or *atque ea*, and is used in preference, because these conjunctions would connect loosely, while the relative connects compactly—"and since this is so," or "but" or "now," as the case may be. There are several conjunctions that illustrate the same principle: *etenim*, *namque*, and especially *neque*, which should very often be divided in its signification, and rendered "and," "but" or "now," the negative part of its meaning being joined with the verb or some other part of the sentence.

This same phrase, *quae cum ita sint*, "since THIS is so," illustrates another difference of idiom. In English we look at a speech or an argument as a whole, and say "this," or, still more commonly, use an adverb: *haec dixit*, "he spoke thus." The Latin, on the other hand, regards the parts and the individual expressions, and

uses the plural of the demonstrative. Allied to the use of the relative as a connective, spoken of above, are such figures as asyndeton,—*veni, vidi, vici;*—polysyndeton,—*nomenque decusque;* and anaphora, —*quod Haeduos, quod Ambarros, quod Allobroges vexassent.* In such figures, the rule is to disregard the Latin word entirely, and render the sentence into the best English possible.

I will mention but one more class of idiomatic expressions, and that perhaps the most important of all—those which spring from the fondness of the ancient languages for concrete expressions, and of the moderns for abstract terms. We quote Lord Bacon as saying "Knowledge is Power"—a thoroughly modern expression, coupling two abstract nouns by a copula. But Solomon expressed exactly the same truth in another form of words —one equally typical of the ancients— "The wise man is strong"—two concrete terms joined by a copula. On the same principle, one who is translating from Latin into English will constantly find it best to turn his verb or adjective into its cognate noun. The Latin uses a verb of specific meaning with a very general noun or pronoun—*haec nuntiavit,* "he ANNOUNCED these *things*;" but the English turns this specific verb into a noun—"he *brought* these TIDINGS." There is no more important difference of idiom than this; no principle the observance of which will be of more assistance in turning good Latin into equally good English.

I make no pretence of having discussed the subject of Idiomatic Translation, either completely or systematically. My sole aim has been to mention, with some slight chain of association, such illustrations of it as have struck me most forcibly in my work as a teacher, and impressed themselves on my mind as most important. If I have succeeded in giving a distinct idea of what idiomatic translation is, every teacher can make his own applications of the general principle.

HEAT expands, and a philosopher has given this as a reason why days are longer in summer than in winter.

IN MEMORY OF "MY TEACHER" OF OLD.

BY BEATRICE M. THAYNE.

Tell me not that ne'er again
  I shall see her winning smile,
For about her, memory
  Lingers fondly all the while,—
Pictures on the inmost heart
  (With an almost magic power)
Face of beauty, form of grace
  Like the swaying lily flower.
I can see her as she stood
  In the springtide, long ago,
In the golden sunset's light
  Gazing o'er the river's flow,
Welcoming with dewy eyes
  Heralds of the lovely spring,—
Merry birds with joyful voice,—
  May flower's odorous blossoming.

I can hear her mellow tones
  Sweeter than the morning breeze,
Mingling with yon robin's song
  In its praiseful melodies.

But the music of her voice
  And her beauteous form and face
Were outshown by heart and mind
  Crowned with gentleness and grace.

O, loved one of long ago,
  Thee this heart shall ne'er forget
Memories fondly round thee cling
  Lingering with a sad regret.

Life holds naught so pure and sweet
  As thee, and when it is o'er
I am hoping thee to greet
  On a fairer, brighter shore,
Where in bliss serene, complete
  I may hear thy voice once more,
Once more sitting at thy feet
  As in happy days of yore.

Too Many Cooks; or the Township versus the "Deestrict System."—II.

BY A PRACTICAL TEACHER.

"Bring me no more reports."—*Falstaff.*

Intelligent foreigners, well posted in matters of public education, who have visited this country expressly to examine into the character of its free schools, have unanimously expressed their admiration of the American system as represented in cities and large villages and towns; but of the schools in the rural districts—even those in the oldest and most advanced states of the union—the same parties seemed to consider that the less said upon subject in the way of criticism, the better; the reason undoubtedly being that a

truthful statement of opinion might be construed into an insult to Uncle Sam, who has so long been accustomed to pride himself upon his schools.

But some of those otherwise favorable critics have unwittingly let out the unpalatable fact that somehow there was a great falling off here, and one or two of them insinuate in the most polite manner imaginable, that if the complacent old gentleman don't get aroused soon from his vain and delusive dreams of fancied superiority to "all creation," to a realizing sense of "the situation," he will waken up some fine morning to discover that his country schools, which should ever be his chief glory, as they are the main bulwarks of his strength, are considerably in the rear of those of the same class, not only in the foremost kingdoms of Europe, but even in such new countries as the British colonies of Australia, the Dominion of Canada, and other places of less note.

Speaking on this subject, Dr. Ryerson, the able and distinguished Superintendent of Public Instruction in the Province of Ontario, in a late report, says: "Taken as a whole I do not think, from my best observations and inquiries, that there is a country in the world in whose cities and towns—except Leipsic, in Saxony—the systems of education are so complete as in the neighboring states. But in the country districts of most of the states the work has begun to halt, and the patriotic object of its—the systems—projectors, have been disappointed. There is no adequate provision to secure the operation of a school in a single neighborhood, much less to secure properly qualified teachers where schools are established. The result is, that when you leave the cities and large towns and go into the rural parts of the state—the peculiar field of a national school law and system, you there find that our American neighbors are not as successful in their public school economy, and accomplish results far below and short of the state appropriations they make, and the machinery they employ for the sound education of the people."

Well indeed might this just and capable critic allude to the country schools as "the peculiar field of a national school—law and system"—for our population, especially in the northwest being mainly agricultural, if the system is weak here it is weak everywhere. The state of the case seems to be this: if you wish properly to elevate the apex of the educational pyramid, you must first of all begin by extending its base; for if you continue to raise the apex higher and higher, without a proportionate enlargement of the foundation, it is clear that the structure must ere long become top-heavy, and will some day come tumbling about your ears. In other words, the country school lies at the foundation of the system; as you seek to render it more efficient, you at the same time, *pari passu*, raise all that is about it; while its neglect or inefficiency will assuredly in time react disastrously upon all the other parts of the grand system of which it must ever form the most vital and essential constituent. May it not, in this view, be compared to the pulse whose vigorous beat proclaims robust health and energy, while a languid and feeble throb here, as certainly denotes the low tone of the whole system, and the gradual but sure encroachments of decay.

Doubtless there are a great many elements in the problem of how to improve the condition of the public schools. Of course it is easy to remind us of such truisms as that, "as the teacher so is the school," etc. Undoubtedly, if we improve the qualifications of teachers the schools will be elevated in proportion. But it is well known that at present many even of those teachers who are trained in Normal schools, remain but a few years at the business of teaching. And were not the Americans the active, versatile and capable people they are, the country schools would be much worse. Indeed, the wonder is that they are so good. But "Young America" has a genius for almost every kind of employment. Even without the help of any previous training, he slides as naturally into teaching as young ducks into the water! Somehow he instinctive-

ly feels that he can keep a s chool as well as the next man." For, is it not a settled conviction with him that "what man has done man can do?" Hence, he is very soon ready to undertake, without much special training, to build a house, pilot a steamboat, preach a sermon, edit a newspaper, run a saw-mill, manage a bank, keep a hotel, etc., each singly, or all by turns. For these and a thousand other spheres of usefulness, he has a decided talent, just because "it is in the family; in the blood." For proof of this all but universal capability, we have only to point to the endless number and variety of patents granted in this country, most of them the inventions of very young men, clearly to prove that the American has mechanical talent sufficient to supply the world with every kind of labor-saving tool and implement of industry. And when he *does* turn his undivided attention in any particular direction, he is sure to win, or at least to deserve, laurels. But like all the rest of mankind, even he is dependent for the display of his choicest gifts and best energies, upon favorable circumstances and suitable encouragement, and as under "the district system" he don't feel that he finds these in the country schools, he shakes the school dust from his feet in a year or two, and throws his energies into another channel.

From considerable experience of its practical operation, I consider this local system of school management open to many and serious objections, which would be avoided by the adoption of the township system, under which capable teachers would receive more encouragement. The town is the proper educational *unit*, just as it is the unit for all other town purposes, such as public roads, care of the poor, etc., etc. If roads and bridges, for example, were put in the same category, under "the district system," they would soon be in a very poor condition, and for the very same reasons that keep the district schools at so low an ebb.

It is a law of our nature as social beings, that there ever is force, weight and dignity in numbers, while "familiarity breeds contempt" A town school board would always command more respect than a local board. This has been the opinion of the wisest educators in this country, and, as we have said, it is founded on reason and common sense. Horace Mann, whose opinion in such matters is unquestioned, regretted the introduction of the district system from the first, and prophesied that it would be a great stumbling block in the way of improvement. Others of America's wisest teachers have entertained and expressed similar views. Perhaps the strongest argument against the township system, is that it takes away from the people, whose money supports the schools, the right of selecting for teacher the precise person they want. But does it really do so? Only in appearance does it deprive them of the slightest privilege. The person they want is surely the best person they can get for their money; and a town board would be far more likely to discover such an one than they would. The change from one system to another would not deprive a single individual of the least iota of his rights. Every one would of course have a voice in selecting members of the town board; and their zeal and anxiety for the good of their particular schools would naturally lead them to support, for such a responsible office, the best men the town afforded.

Disraeli, the elder, has written about the "quarrels of authors," and made a very interesting and famous book; but the squabbles of district school trustees—a far richer and wider theme—still await a competent hand to do them full justice. Our ambition is of a far humbler kind, being simply to record, in unstudied, unvarnished form a few of our personal experiences, some of which seemed to us to be strikingly illustrative of the evils of the system complained of.

With these prefatory remarks, I now proceed to relate how, once upon a time, from this same natural spirit of squabbling which is sure to spring up when there are too many cooks fussing around the educational soup cauldron, an unlucky school house in which I had the honor to be the last teacher, was moved from place to place in order to be in the

center of the "deestrict"—an imaginary point, the exact *focus* of which was in constant dispute among the local mathematicians—until the tortured building was ruined in the operation. And thereon hangs a tale to be hereafter related for the benefit of future generations of school officers.

By the learned it is usually considered that there are three insoluble, scientific problems which are ever tempting the ingenuity of man to explain them, but which have hitherto baffled his best efforts. Of one of these problems—that of "squaring the circle"—a Wisconsin mathematical genius lately advertised that he had discovered a method of demonstration, and added that he was willing, for a suitable consideration, to make his discovery known to competent parties. However this may be, there is another twister, that of circling the square or finding the mean center of a school district when the people of said district have made up their minds not to be satisfied, which is a still more difficult problem to solve; and the man who should hit upon a method of solution that would be satisfactory in all cases, setting the matter entirely at rest everywhere and forever, would be a public benefactor indeed, deserving of a niche in the temple of fame not beneath the squarer of the circle.

And here, perhaps, it may be proper to mention that the building in question was so wrecked by the process of changing its location so often, that by a singular coincidence, it lasted only until the last day of the term, when a violent gale of wind, rushing like a hurricane the frozen regions of the north, blew it to pieces; and it is out of one of the fragments, which nearly knocked me over, that the writing desk on which I now pen my experience of the "deestrict system" was manufactured. This relic I hurriedly picked up in my flight, and have long preserved it in its present shape, as a memorial of past times, as well as a memento of so singular an occurrence.

It was a year or two after the conclusion of the late terrible civil war in this country, when the writer was residing in one of these northwestern states; and being at the time in question partially disabled, by the effects of a severe accident, from following a more active occupation, was engaged in teaching a district school. It was at the commencement of a winter-term, and at the end of the first or second week, Friday evening, a period ever welcome to the plodding, weary pedagogue, and as sacred to him as the "Cotter's Saturday night" to the toil-worn laborer on a farm.

The last echo of the gladsome voices of the light-hearted, merry urchins, had just died away, and their retreating forms had scarcely disappeared from view, when somehow the sounds touched a sympathetic chord, as sometimes will happen in spite of ourselves, and a crowd of odd memories of youthful days come thronging up, bring back the dim and faded shadows of the distant past. At such seasons the most prosaic of us will sometimes feel, as it were, under a magic spell, from which, like the wedding guest when under the influence of the Ancient Mariner, they are for a time unable to free themselves.

O thrice happy season of blissful youth, how pleasantly thy joyous, golden hours are spent, with heart as yet all untouched by the withering finger of grief and care! Free from all trouble or sorrow, how imperceptibly the swift-gliding, golden hours pass, unheeded, away! How bright and fair to the warm, youthful fancy every prospect appears. How, at this most enchanting and happiest period of our lives, the chambers of the east and west seem arrayed in all the rich hues of purple and gold; and the longest summer day seems all too short to satisfy our hunger and thirst for excitement and novelty. All too brief, alas! this happy season is doomed too soon to pass away, never, to return, except to the eye and ear of memory; by which means we are for a little while occasionally permitted to cheat ourselves into the fond belief that we see forms and hear voices, and mingle in scenes once familiar to us—scenes and intercourse which have long since forever vanished here below, but which our

faith assures us shall re-appear and be renewed in the blessed mansions above, where no enemy ever enters, and from which no friend ever departs.

The sweet associations and recollections of our early days, thus brought back on the wings of memory, how infinitely precious they always are, especially when our youth has been well and happily spent! Yes, this blissful season of youth has indeed such a wondrous charm, such a strong fascination about it, that the joys of no subsequent period of our lives, however exquisite, are at all to be compared to it. Well, indeed, may the poet sing—

> "There's nothing half so sweet in life
> As love's young dream."

And hence, we do not much wonder that our intimate acquaintance of the School History, old Ponce de Leon, and his adventurous companions should for a time have given up even the pursuit of GOLD, the love of which is the universal quickener, in a vain search for the means of restoring youth. We say we do not much wonder that they should have traveled hundreds and thousands of miles through dismal swamps and pathless forests, and suffered untold hardships and privations, exposing themselves to perils and dangers from the attacks of savage beasts and still more savage men, in order to reach the fabled fountain whose life-giving waters would more than compensate all their toils, by preserving, in eternal bloom, the freshness, the beauty, and the vigor of their youth.

But this old Indian legend was but a genuine prophesy in disguise. It contains a doctrine obscurely hinted at in the traditions of even the crudest tribes, but all owning a common origin, and having a common reference; for as the Spanish cavalier found a grave amid the turbid waves of the "Father of Waters," while seeking the fountain of life where it was not to be found, in the light of a clearer revelation, we believe that such will ever be the fate of all who, on this side of the portals of the tomb, seek for any other than the only true and living fountain which is ever fresh and ever free to all, and which alone has the exclusive virtue of conferring the blessings of life and immortality.

And here I am sorry to have to confess that, although I have given np the habit for years, I was then an inveterate smoker. A ponderous meerschaum, with all necessary appurtenances, accompanied me wherever I went. It was an essential part of myself; the first thing in the morning and the last at night; and as some are said to live but to eat," I lived but to smoke. It was a very bad habit, I confess, weakening the nerves, injuring the memory, disturbing the action of the heart itself, and introducing a real poison into the blood. Of course, it is a long time often before it may accomplish all this mischief upon a sound constitution, but it usually does it at last. *Verb. sap. sat.*

Having got my long pipe in full operation, I lay down upon a bench and began listlessly to watch the curling wreaths of smoke as they slowly ascended the vitiated atmosphere of the school-room, which, like too many others, had no other means of ventilation except the doors and windows. The ascending wreaths would assume fantastic shapes, sometimes like miniature *cerro cumuli*, forming a dense canopy overhead, reaching to the ceiling of the room, and gradually spreading over the whole of the large apartment. Being at the time in a somewhat paradoxical frame of mind, I considered that, as one poison is said to destroy another, it was just possible, on philosophical principles, that the tobacco smoke might tend to purify the air of the room by neutralizing the other bad odors or gasses, when a vigorous rap came at the door. This suddenly gave my thoughts a very different turn; for as I had been compelled to punish a very bad boy that day, I was afraid that perhaps his father was coming to give me a knock-downder. But I was agreeably mistaken, for in answer to the usual invitation to "come in," a stranger entered. He possessed a very tall and stalwart figure, was dressed in a soldier's overcoat, and wore high boots with the pants tucked in after the fashion

rendered so famous since the time that Joaquin Miller, the poet of the Sierras, introduced it among the young scions of the English aristocracy.

I invited the stranger to be seated by the stove, which he very readily did, as he said he had traveled far through the deep snow, and as the sun had just sunk, the penetrating wintry air had begun to acquire a greater intensity of cold.

After a little general conversation, the stranger informed me that he had lost all the fingers of the right hand except the fore-finger and thumb, and had been otherwise wounded in the war; that he was by birth an American, of Irish extraction, and as the writer is, remotely at least, connected with the Gem of the Sea—the home of fair women and brave men—the land of orators, poets, minstrels, warriors and patriots—the interesting stranger was thus made doubly welcome, and as he wanted a school, I resolved to help him to get one all I could.

Here, in "the land of the free and the home of the brave," we all meet on the same broad level of virtue and intelligence. Here all classes of men commingle on equal terms, and each is valued according to his real sterling qualities, and not according to his wealth or social standing. In this northwestern country, we are a strangely compounded population, the aristocracy of muscle if not of brains, probably of both; for the conditions of life are so rigorous and severe as to evoke all the powers of mind and body. Here are to be found the enterprising American, the energetic Englishman, the cautious Scotchman, the warm hearted Irishman, the hardy Norwegian, the industrious German, and others, all working in harmony, and laying, broad and deep, the foundations of a new society. And as all great nations spring from mixture of races, there is everything in our favor—a great country, and a people worthy of the country.

And so we sat and talked school and smoked, and only adjourned when sember night began to cast its dark shadows, thick and fast, around the lone schoolhouse by the wood.

(TO BE CONTINUED.)

IDEAS AND WORDS.

BY MRS. H. E. G. AREY, WHITEWATER.

In learning his mother tongue the child obtains the idea first, then the symbol—the object, then the name. The symbol is nothing without the idea, the name without the object. He learns by observation—by the spontaneous activity of his own mind—learns first that in which he is most interested. It is the object that interests him, not the symbol. The word is merely the handle of the vase by which it is passed on from one to another; very necessary to the complete usefulness of the vase, but wholly worthless if separated from it. When therefore we give the child the word without the object, the symbol without the idea, the handle without the vase, we are giving him a stone for bread. He is like one at sea without chart or compass—he has not passed from the known to the unknown, but all is unknown. Where shall he find the clue which shall lead him out of this wilderness? How interpret these hieroglyphics by which he is surrounded—these symbols which symbolise nothing to him? He has learned the language of the house, of the street, of the farm. The language of the text-book is new to him. The school does not teach him this language. He is first taught a new art—that of reading—a new set of symbols. Then to memorize word symbols which he may or may not understand. When he speaks of that which he knows he uses his judgment, controls understandingly all the vocabulary he has at command, and, as thoughts press for utterance he continually increases his vocabulary, and under the control of the attentive teacher he learns his own language purely and extensively, increases his powers of observation from learning the importance of observation, and increases his powers of utterance. In speaking, his mind is exclusively occupied with ideas; in reciting from memory the succession of words is the thing in his mind. The active thinking mind commands its utterance, the words—some words—present themselves of course. The culture of memory and

attention are secured by this activity of mind on objects of interest,—secured not merely for the moment—in school, but for all leisure hours. Wherever the work of observation goes on, the mind is occupied intelligently in selecting or rejecting the thoughts presented—in discriminating between them. The child learns language when he has learned ideas, and only in connection with ideas that are really at work will any offering of new terms or any grammatical corrections be of avail. He may give examples correctly day after day and never apply them to his own speech or his own writing. The car of grammatical correctness has been well loaded by the teacher, but it has not been coupled on the engine of mental activity, and is left behind as the mental work goes on.

The work of education is successful only when it leads on the spontaneous activities of the mind. When there is a demand for utterance—an inborn desire for correctness, then the new terms and the right rules will hold their place. "But," says one, "we find no such demand. The shine of outside life is all the soil we have." Now if you really find the child in the ditch lead him up into the meadows. He will be glad enough when he gets there. But very possibly the difficulty lies only in the soiling and the apathy of rough companionship. Strike down beneath the surface and see if you do not find a purer companionship of unspoken thought. Only when thought is awake can rules be of value. There is little use for the pruning knife where there has been no growth. If the work of securing correctness and fluency has been commenced at the right point, there will be few weeds to pluck up. When the child first begins to report his own observations, care should be taken that he reports them correctly; that his impressions of external objects do not become mixed and confused; that he reports what he has seen and not what he has imagined, and that though he does not talk with the stiffness of the philosopher, he shall yet use the English language correctly. When he first enters school, even before he can read his knowledge on any given subject,—a narration of any event—a description with which he is familiar should be drawn from him, the teacher demanding that he shall stick to his text and use good language—the class criticising what he does while the teacher supplies the needed terms and writes for him. Then when it is read to him he should be called to decide whether his thoughts are clearly uttered and whether he has been able to select points of interest. He will thus cultivate his powers of observation, expression, judgment, and will learn to distinguish his own thoughts from those of others, thus gaining confidence in his own judgment and a right to that confidence. These dictation exercises as conducted with us are giving very satisfactory results. In a future number I will endeavor to give some illustrations of the success of this work.

OUT-DOOR STUDIES.

BY PROF. J. T. LOVEWELL, SHEFFIELD SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL, NEW HAVEN.

The ardent enthusiasm and *eclat* which heralded and accompanied the Anderson School of Natural History at Penikese, has proved barely sufficient to tide this much lauded experiment over an experience of two years.

It has met and surrendered to the stubborn fact on which so many promising schemes have foundered—lack of funds. This at least is the ostensible cause for suspending operations for the present; and it is to be hoped, in the interests of good education, that means may yet be found to carry out the cherished plans of the honored and lamented Agassiz.

There is no doubt a place for schools of Natural History even when we abandon the chimerical and crude notion that such schools are the only arena for true educators. There is no doubt that the Anderson school has already brought forth good fruit by emphasizing the importance of observation in studying natural science.

Nor is it any less certain that every true naturalist has been trained by these same methods, whether inculcated by the

schools, or resulting from the promptings of his own genius and thirst for knowledge. New converts to this truth are apt to make themselves ridiculous by assuming that all the world like themselves have just burst their chrysalis.

We may cite the school at Penikese as another example of the large cost of maintaining a first class school of natural science. It was assumed, at the outset, that boarding expenses of students would be very low and all charges of the school were at a minimum.

These low rates were deemed essential to attract that class of students who were especially to be invited, and the vacation season of other schools was also selected in behalf of that same class, the overworked and underpaid school teachers, who could thus afford to revel in the delights of science for a part of the year at least. It was expected that the professors would find sufficient reward for giving up their own vacations in being allowed to guide the studies of such enthusiastic and zealous disciples.

When we add to this the pleasures of a summer on the sea-side, placed within reach of those who could never dream of Long Branch or Newport, the wonder is that thousands did not obey the summons.

It may seem strange that learned doctors should blunder in such a plain question of political economy and think to provide comfortably for a community, and at low rates, on a desert island. Any boarding house mistress might have given them valuable hints on this point. Penikese may not be a desert, but the supplies all had to come from Boston markets, and the board item ran up to $8 per week.

To offset this other charges were made so low that the end of the season brought a deficit and nothing was left for care of buildings or repairs. Not only this, but the students assembled did not exhibit that untiring zeal and energy which was expected. Some had come with the general idea that this was to be a grand picnic like the teachers' conventions to which they were accustomed. The majority had meager preparation for advanced studies and needed elementary instruction, which we may understand hardly falls within the scope of a Harvard professor.

All soon found that work was the price of success here as elsewhere. As a natural result there was a falling off before the end of the session, and we may believe that professors and students returned home wiser in other things as well as in natural science.

We should not speak of the Anderson school thus particularly except that this has been held up by the press at home and abroad as an example of what might be done under improved systems of education. Professor Shaler's "geological school" which is soon to encamp among the Cumberlands has naturally been coupled with the Anderson school. Having less ambitious scope and profiting by the experience of the latter we may hope it will exhibit a more feasible way for our colleges to make these sorties upon the strongholds of science.

The young men of this party have at least the advantage of elementary training, their life in camp will have the charm of novelty and with prudent management need not be *very* expensive.

We are safe in expecting the best results from this excursion, for it is hardly significant to call it a "school." It is not a solitary and untried experiment either, for scientific teachers time out of mind have been wont to invite more or less students to join in their excursions. The only distinction is, that here a somewhat larger number and not drawn wholly from one school, are to participate. Scientific excursions have long been recognized in Yale College as an important auxilliary in instruction. No one in this country perhaps gave this recognition earlier than Prof. Dana, whose wise and genial guidance in geological rambles about New Haven is still the delight of his students. The geological and mineralogical features of the district about New Haven are so varied that Yale students enjoy rare privileges in this respect. Several times every week in suitable weather Zoölogical students with Prof. Verill, students in Botany with Prof.

Eaton, or the Mineralogists with Prof. Brush may be seen exploring the shores of the sound, and mines, hills, and quarries anywhere within a radius of 20 or 30 miles from New Haven. Sometimes the trip extends farther, and the Franklin and Sterling mines in New Jersey has been a favorite visiting place.

This is all regular term work, and a feature of the instruction much valued by professors and students. Vacation opens a wider field with fewer and more zealous participants. Such have been the parties led by Prof. Marsh to the Rocky Mountains, the dredging parties to various points along the Atlantic coast from Florida to Labrador and many trips among the mountains of New England and the Middle States.

Such in brief are some of the opportunities for out-door study offered by one of our colleges. It is evident that this example might be imitated to a greater or less extent by every school in the land and with great profit to all concerned.

It must not be supposed, however, in the instance above cited, that excursions take the place of more quiet and cloister like study. The fire must be kindled in the lecture and recitation room which elevates these trips above the plane of holiday rambles. When the majority of a geological party abandon their professor, and study rocks by using them in a game of quoits, that professor may gain a hint from the incident to kindle the fire a little.

Lazy and trifling students will do no better in the open air than under a roof. We need not expect to find a philosopher's stone in any of these new methods which will transmute the dull lead of mediocrity into the bright gold of genius, nor a panacea for the indolent and vicious. Not expecting too much, then, we may hope, in the light of past experience, to find out-door studies valuable in awakening students to see the great volume of nature opened before them, and in quickening and strengthening them in its study. When our leading schools and colleges are fully aroused on this subject, we may expect better provision will be demanded and made for advanced students in natural history.

As a means of supplying teachers with the knowledge requisite to carry these out-door studies into all grades of schools, the institution at Penikese was valuable, and we may regret that its doors are closed for a single season. The lever to open these doors again is money, for no good scientific school has yet been carried on without large expenses. To supply these there are three sources—tuition, endowments, or state aid. Existing schools draw from all of these, and if tuition fees were made to cover the whole, few could afford the luxury of a scientific education.

The tuition fee of $150 per annum, now required in our leading scientific schools, is said to cover little more than one-half the cost, the other part being met by endowments and state aid. It is evident, then, that means must be provided with no sparing hand to secure success in Agassiz's great scheme for popularizing his favorite studies. While waiting for this liberal hand the zealous teacher will not neglect his resources. The laboratories and cabinets of nature are at his doors and are open all the time without fee. Guide books are cheap, and though sometimes misleading and dark without a teacher, they give effectual aid to the dilligent.

LETTER-WRITING.

In a former article we gave a few, as we believe, useful hints in regard to the substance of letters. We shall now say something about their form.

There are certain matters of detail of rather a mechanical kind which are essential to the proper getting up of a letter. These every person making pretensions to culture and politeness is expected to be familiar with and to make practical use of.

The object of writing is undoubtedly to give legible expression to what is written. That which, however, is easily deciphered is not enough by itself to constitute what is understood to be "a good hand." If it were, the round and pain-

fully elaborate characters of the schoolboy, as unmistakable in their signification as a sign-post, would be regarded as the perfection of writing. The regularly turned and exactly measured letters, however glibly they may flow with the ink from the pen of the writing-master, are not, moreover, any more than the stiff, slow-coming strokes of his pupil, regarded, with all their evenness and distinctness, as constituting a good handwriting for any other purpose than to learn from. In acquiring the elements of penmanship it is essential that the pupil should have before him as a model the perfectly formed characters, with every stroke marked and turn graduated with the exactness of a graver's tool. Without this early discipline to precision he he would probably never become sufficiently familiar with the genuine form of a letter to write it legibly. If, however, he should adopt what may be termed the copperplate style of writing, he would often be told, probably, that he wrote like a writing-master; but this is not commonly considered a compliment. Perfection in this kind of writing, moreover, can hardly be acquired without making a specialty of it, and devoting more time to it than any use other than that of the teacher or the scrivener's clerk would justify.

There is an impression among certain people who pride themselves upon their superior civilization that a handwriting to be genteel, as they term it, must be an illegible scrawl. This absurd idea is not so prevalent, we are proud to say, in this country as in England, where, we believe, it is rare to find a man of rank who will condescend to write a sentence that can be read. This comes, we conjecture, from the contempt of the higher classes for all persons engaged in manual labor, and consequently for that facility in the use of the hand which is supposed to characterize them. The writing of authors and literary composers of different kinds is apt to be careless and illegible. This is easily accounted for without charging them with any thing so absurd as an affectation of genteel scrawling. The ideas of those accustomed to composition flow with a pace that is quite impracticable for the hand to follow. The words are consequently, as it were, constantly lagging behind, and are dragged along with a haste which prevents any thing like a firm and complete impression. Prose writers are more remarkable for their slipshod penmanship than poets, for the former seldom and the latter frequently copy their manuscripts. Our Bryant and Longfellow are neat penmen; Greeley scribbled a confused scrawl; the handwriting of Wordsworth and Southey was nicely traced; and that of Tennyson is distinct if not elegant, always easily legible. Dickens, especially in later years, wrote an entangled manuscript, full of blurred words and corrections, tormenting to the eye and puzzling to the ingenuity of the reader.

Many insist upon seeing in the handwriting evidences of national and individual character, and thus affect to find in the bolder and plainer writing of the English and Americans generally an indication of those business habits which the smaller and more crabbed penmanship of the French and Germans would seem to show, as is asserted by some, they are less possessed of.

A neat letter is especially expected from the hands of a refined woman. The adoption of the slanting, angular style of writing known as the English, though from its uniformity it prevents all expression of individual character, is very favorable to neatness. The practice of using lines gives a formality and stiffness to a letter which prove the writer an unfamiliar hand. The habit of writing evenly is very easily acquired, but if the artificial helps to regularity are used persistently at first, it becomes difficult ever to spare them afterward. A fair margin, provided it is preserved throughout of equal width, improves the look of a written as well as printed page. The separation of the different subjects of the composition into paragraphs is becoming as well as useful, if they are arranged with more or less uniformity of relation throughout a manuscript to what precedes and follows them.

There are certain epistolary abominations with which women are especially charged, whether justly or not we do not pretend to determine. The worst of these is the crossed letter, which, with the appearance of a finely woven web, has more than its difficulty of being unraveled. To get at the threads of the texture of the latter is comparatively easy, for they are direct and regular; but who can hope to trace out the confused threads of discourse of the former without an attack of ophthalmia? Cheap postage leaves no excuse for subjecting the eyes and the patience of a correspondent to this irritating process. Women's letters are said, moreover, to have the peculiarity of being composed mostly of a quantity of waste words, and a postscript, in which all the point is concentrated, like the sting in the tail of a wasp. If there is any thing to be said, let it be said at once in the body of the letter, for the postscript always has an unseemly look of carelessness and untidiness.

Many sentimental correspondents, bent upon being exceedingly intense in expression, are in the habit of underlining or italicizing almost every other word of their letters. This defeats its own purpose, and produces the very reverse of the effect sought by this profusion of emphasis, which, by familiarity, creates no greater sensation than the crossing of a *t* or the dotting of an *i*, and is attributed by those who know the proper use of *italics* to ignorance or affectation on the part of the writer.

Ladies should not be too sparing of their sheets of paper, and in inditing a note or a letter of but few words it is well, so that it may be read at a glance, to write only on the alternate pages. A great deal of inquiry, fuss, trouble, apology, and complaint would be avoided if the simple practice of writing the address in full at the head of each letter were adopted. Most people content themselves with the generality of the city, town, or village, but the number of the house and the street in which it may be situated should be also specified. It is good taste to conform to the common usage in regard to the color of the paper and the form of the envelope in which it is folded, and eschew all indulgence in caprices for chromatic displays and eccentric figures.—*Harper's Bazar.*

GOOD TEACHING.

There are several instances of this at the Platteville Normal School, which are worth special mention. The primary teacher, Miss Brayman, is giving some very interesting Object Lessons. One class of little ones have learned not only to call the various geometrical blocks held up to them by their right names, so as to say, this is a sphere, a cube, a cone, or a pyramid, and even point out the apex, the center, the circumference, etc., but to give the definitions of these solids, and parts of solids, with a quickness and correctness which would not be easily imitated by all the members of our various Institutes. Some of our readers could scarcely tell even the difference between an edge and a corner as readily as do these little scholars in Form. Then she has an infant class in color, where the greatest eagerness is shown, as she spreads out a number of bits of colored pasteboard, and asks the pupils what color is this and this. Then she bids one little girl pick out the buffs, and another the salmons, while different little boys have orange, or cream colored, or amber. Next one little one has to pick out all the yellows and arrange them in the order of shades from light to dark, another the reds, a third the greens, a fourth the blues, and a fifth the purple. This is done with scarcely a failure. Then she mixes the cards together, picks up one and shows it for an instant, and then calls on some scholar to match it. Here there are frequent mistakes, but each one is quickly seen by the other scholars, who raise their hands with the utmost interest. As I saw how much the children enjoyed this exercise, and considered how much they were refreshed from their other studies, and how useful this training of the eye for color would be to them in all after life, I could but think what a pity it is that so few of our primary

teachers attempt anything of the sort. How often the primary teaching is suffered to be dull and lifeless, a mere struggle under a load of text-book, broken by long hours of utter inaction when the children are kept in because it is not time to let them go. Is it idleness or ignorance that makes the teacher neglect such simple means to interest her pupils and at the same time really educate them?

Another class in the same room had been studying four pictures, which hung on the walls, of the eagle, the duck, the turkey and the blue heron. The amount of information they gave about the legs, wings, beaks, and habits of these birds, was really astonishing, while the interest was as keen as the most exciting game. These scholars were plainly learning to observe for themselves and think for themselves. They were growing not merely in knowledge but in power of thought.

The same may be said of some scholars in the next room, the Intermediate Department, where Miss Curtis had a class in Botany of little boys and girls, eight or ten years old, who analyzed plants, picked out the ovaries and petals, counted pistils and stamens, told whether the flower was an endogen or an exogen, and in which class it belonged, with a correctness, and at the same time an eagerness which showed that they too were being educated, or drawn out, and not merely crammed. Scholars thus happily taught can scarcely fail to love Nature, and love Science too. The same habits of accurate observation which are developed in this analysis are worth more than any facts which can be taught out of any text-book.

But there is space for but one other instance, of several which might be given, of good work at Platteville. Professor Gardner, in the Normal Department proper, has a class in Geometry, who have been nearly through a text-book in which there are thirty problems. He always asks, after the demonstration in the book has been given, "Do you know any other way of doing this?"

An original demonstration is usually ready. Again he asks, "Is there any other way of proving it? Does any one else in the class know of any new way?" Often he gets as many as five of these original solutions. About seventy have been added to the thirty in the book. This is real education.

And that this plan of training the scholars to look beyond the book and think for themselves has been in general use at Platteville, is shown not only in the prominent positions occupied by the graduates hitherto, among whom are the principals of the high schools at Sheboygan, Elkhorn and Bay View, and quite a number of principals and other teachers in the various cities and towns of the state, but in the thoughtful and studious character of the senior class now about to graduate. These young gentlemen and ladies show a maturity of character, a taste for original investigation, a zeal for teaching, and a discipline in its methods, which will make them welcome wherever thoroughly educated teachers are in demand. Platteville has its defects, like every other place, but it is really doing some noble work.—F. M. HOLLAND, *in the Baraboo Republic.*

"IS BEING BUILT."—It is asserted that this form meets "what was felt to be a want." Shakspeare wrote several things and never felt the want; Bacon wrote and spoke and did not feel the want; Milton did not feel the want; Dryden did not feel the want; nor Addison, nor Pope, nor Cowper, nor Gray, nor Thompson, nor Goldsmith, nor Young, nor Johnson, nor Burke, nor Pitt, nor Fox, nor Hume, nor Robertson, nor Gibbon, or Macaulay. "Is being built" was not introduced because any felt the want, but because some one, like little George, "could not tell a lie." An ardent lover of truth was one day struck with the thought that when we say "The house is building" we make the house a mason or carpenter. A strong imagination may perhaps form some faint idea of the agony of his soul. "How can we," he cried, "how can we thus lead the world astray and hope to be saved?" In desperation he seized upon "is being built," and never again made any one believe that houses build.—*Home and School.*

TIME.

BY BEATRICE M. THAYNE.

Life hath no space for idle hours;
But head or hands or feet should be employed,
Aye, often *all* may work with one accord,
Lest day go by and nothing be attained,
No treasure laid away for future years;
Treasure that still may shine when earth decays.

The simplest duty of the humblest life
May often bear a richer store of good
Than glorious deed in song or story told,
If only it be done with strong desire
To follow Right wherever it may lead;
To make each fleeting moment tell for God;
To do whatever duty lies before,
As unto Him, with all our soul and might.
Thus shall the heart grow nobler and more fair.

SOME POINTS IN ADVANCED ARITHMETIC.

(READ BEFORE A NORMAL TRAINING SCHOOL.)

1. Introduce each new rule by a preliminary drill on that rule. This is to give an idea of what they are going to study, and an idea how to study it.

2. Let this preliminary drill be on the process of the rule, strictly, leaving the theory for following lessons.

3. Conduct the preliminary drill by having the pupils read the rule step by step, as an example is explained.

4. Have each pupil follow the work put on the board, with slate and pencil; this is to prove that they are instructed, and are following the explanation.

5. Be sure every explanation of every process comes from the pupils out of the book, and not from yourself. That is, ask questions, and have them examine their books. This teaches them to read for themselves, and to understand what they read.

6. So proceed step by step, until the work is concluded, omitting nothing in the process, but everything in the theory.

7. Assign a few simple examples to be solved by the rule as explained on the board, and have them brought, on slates, to be examined at next recitation.

8. Have them commit the rules by solving the examples.

9. Have them recite the rule by stating the steps as they occur in the solution.

10. Never begin a new theme by having the pupils commit the definitions, for they treat more of theory and technicalities than process, and only bewilder the beginners.

11. The pupil is now familiar with the rule; fix the step of the rule on his mind by having each example thoroughly explained, according to the rule.

12. Here exert your patience and ingenuity toward the end of securing correct, systematic, cogent, expression of thought.

13. Having thus succeeded in securing,

First. Power of correct expression of thought, in explanations.

Second. A thorough mastery of the processes of the rule, pass to the next step, viz:

Third. Demonstration of rule; but if you think your class is not strong enough to take principles, this step may be omitted. If this step is taken, let it be after the pupil is familiar with the proces, and his curiosity as to the "reason why" is thoroughly aroused.

14. Have the demonstration come solely from pupil.

15. The demonstration should be assigned as a lesson.

16. Select your best pupil to demonstrate first.

17. Be patient, and not too rigid in your demands of pupils for minor points.

FRANK L. WAIT.

NATIONAL NORMAL SCHOOL, Lebanon, Ohio.

FREE LIBRARIES.

[At the public opening of the Free Library in the city of Madison, on the evening of June 2d, the following speech by the State Superintendent, was among those presented on the interesting occasion:]

MR. PRESIDENT:—I hold that the founding of a public library is one of the most admirable enterprises that can engage the attention of a community. Before costly public buildings, before parks, before plans for laying out and adorning streets, before all other efforts at mere physical convenience or grace in city or village, should be wisely provided means for the culture of the people who dwell in

it or are to dwell in it. The school and the library should be the first creation and care. The school usually is the first. For this the founders of an American state or city usually make immediate provision. Certain sections of land in the state or certain lots in the city are sacredly dedicated in the very beginning to the purpose of public instruction. Few public buildings in either antedate those of the school.

I have coupled the school and the library. Indeed these were so coupled—were recognized as twin necessities—by the founders of our own state, who, in the organic constitution, made joint provision for "common schools" *and libraries*, for "academies and normal schools" *and libraries*,—as if the library was an indispensible adjunct to the school of whatever grade. I think those founders were right. Libraries are indispensible adjuncts or supplements to schools, if the latter are to be, in anything like the highest sense, fruitful in good results. Merely to kindle a love for knowledge, and to show how knowledge can be obtained, without providing a source *whence* it may be obtained, is like lighting a lamp that is nearly destitute of oil; or it is to emulate the unwisdom of those who too frequently plant trees and think that in the planting alone they have fulfilled the whole law; whereas, neglecting all but its first requirement, securing no permanent condition of growth, the fierce suns and moisture-robbing winds of later summer parch the earth, and the buds and leaves of the earlier season droop and perish untimely. O foolish planting of trees, losing the reward of our labor because neglecting another consequent but easier one! O foolish founder of schools, seeking to make good and wise and happy men by a little formal instruction in a few arts or sciences in childhood, and then dooming the instructed to perpetual isolation from the great fountain of knowledge, and light, and wisdom, and joy flowing from books! The best that the common school can do, beyond imparting the mystery of two or three practically useful arts, is to qualify its pupils for an intelligent and joyful use of good books. A nobler, happier result I cannot conceive. It is well to be thoroughly conversant with the various branches of school lore, but it is decidedly better to be thoroughly in love with reading. Could the schools merely arouse this love in every youthful breast, their mission would be beneficent far beyond the present fact.

Not in the least extravagant were the words of Sir John Herschel: "If I were to pray for a taste," said he, "which should stand me in stead, under every variety of circumstances, and be a source of happiness and cheerfulness to me through life, and a shield against its ills, however things might go amiss, and the world frown upon me, it would be a taste for reading. Give a man this taste and you place him in contact with the best society in every period of history—with the wisest and the wittiest, the tenderest, the bravest, and the finest characters which have adorned humanity. You make him a denizen of all nations a contemporary of all ages. The world has been created for him. It is hardly possible but that his character should take a higher and better tone from the constant habit of associating with a class of thinkers, to say the least of it, above the average of human nature." Nor in the least extravagant was the speech of Fenelon, when he said that, "If all the riches of both the Indies; if the kingdoms of Europe were laid at his feet, in exchange for his love of reading, he would spurn them all." Rufus Choate said: "Happy is he who has laid up in youth, and held fast in all fortune, a genuine and passionate love of reading. True balm of hurt minds; of surer and more healthful charm than 'popy and mandragora,' or all the drowsy syrups of the world,—by that single taste, by that single capacity, he may bound in a moment into the still region of delightful studies and be at rest."

With such sentiments book-lovers everywhere are in hearty sympathy. A humble but no less devoted and enthusiastic lover of reading myself, I can add personal testimony that to this test I owe

the most substantial and enduring happiness I have known. And I will go further and say that looking back from my present stand point over the past years of my life, I owe to the quiet reading and study of books out of school life, much more than to the formal work of my technical education. The latter was probably as good as the average, but the best part of it was the acquirement of the ability to make good use of books after school and college life was left. No man here is a more faithful, a more grateful devotee of reading. No one can rejoice more heartily in the enterprise that is here formally inaugurated to-night. No one believes more profoundly in its great and increasing value to the people of this city. Madison is not behind other cities in useful and honorable enterprise, but Madison in thus founding a large public library—free to all her citizens alike, rich and poor—performs the noblest act in her history. A new source of just pride is opened to her people—may I say it is a source of more personal pride. Nature made her charming lakes and almost unrivaled landscapes. The State built her graceful capitol and adorned her delightful park. But to the city itself is due all the honor of establishing this free library, which, like Minerva from the brain of Jove, appears to spring into being with full stature and panoply.

For the city I rejoice at it. With the city I shall be proud of it. But with just pride and rejoicing come some other considerations of anxiety and regret. If I love books I love rural life as much. The city has some peculiar charms for me, but the country has more. I love its quiet, its freedom, its healthful scenes and associations, its people. It appears to me that the country is a far better place in which to rear children than the city. Feeling and believing thus, I am jealous of the attractions of cities, and I look with sorrow and apprehension upon the change from rural to urban life, which is in all sections of the Union depleting the country of its best citizens. From farms to cities and villages are constantly going the most intelligent families, the most enterprising and useful. They go for the superior means of education, for better society, for a score of advantages which cities possess and the country does not, but might and ought to possess. It is my conviction that when in this country, as of old in the Roman Empire, all the intelligence and wealth shall be in cities, and the country shall be given over to mere laborers—unintelligent, unprogressive, serf-like—then the perils that beset republicanism will be much greater and more numerous than they are to-day. And the drift appears to be in this direction. New England shows melancholy evidences of it. Even here in the newer west we see the manifest beginnings of the change.

To seek to give more advantages and attractions to country life appears to me one of the first and plainest duties of patriotism in this country. Under this view the educational facilities of the country ought to be trebled. Facilities for better and higher instruction ought to be devised. To this end it occurred to me that a system of Town High Schools and a system of Town Libraries might be inaugurated which should be a means of giving greater value, dignity and prominence to country life. The High School plan received the approval of the last legislature and promises to become a success. The Library scheme is the chief educational effort of the present year and will be the leading feature of the next annual report of the department of instruction.

In this matter, however, I find I was so fully anticipated by a distinguished predecessor, and now honored resident of this city, that I hope to find comparatively easy the revival of a law that once, through his efforts, had place upon the statute book. It would have wrought for Wisconsin the great blessings this Free Library will bring to its Capital, but for the accident of a civil war, and I trust it will yet be in substance restored.

I hope the report of the proceedings here to-night will fly on the wings of the wind, to every section of the State, will stir up emulation in many another city more destitute of books and book-lovers

than this, and will aid somewhat in the speedy establishment of a State Library system that shall at no distant day bless every village and township within its fair borders.

Improved Methods in Public Instruction—An old Wisconsin Teacher Endorsed.

[We are pleased to give place to the following, from the Memphis (Tenn.) *Appeal*, as furnishing evidence of the success of Hon. A. Pickett, Supt. of Schools in that city, in inaugurating an improved system of public education there. Mr. Pickett was formerly Principal at Horicon, in this State:]

The examination of the pupils of the public schools is now progressing. Yesterday a representative of the *Appeal*, in company with Dr. R. W. Mitchell, president of the board of education, visited the Alabama street and Chelsea schools, and there had an opportunity of witnessing the new methods of instruction which were last year introduced by Superintendent Pickett. This gentleman, upon being elected superintendent of the Memphis city schools, determined to task the reasoning faculties of the pupils, so as to render them self-reliant, prompt and methodical in the pursuit of their studies, for it is long since conceded by philosophers that mere knowledge and intellectual development are not only not the same, but stand in no necessary proportion to each other. Hence his idea was not simply to communicate information, but in such a manner by the employment of subsidiary means to awake a vigorous and varied though methodical exertion of the pupils' faculties. Testimony to this end is not wanting, and from the days of Aristotle, with Aquinas and Scotus, do we find this principle of education indorsed, and in modern times Malebranche says: "If I held truth captive in my hand I should open my hand and let it fly, in order that I might again pursue and capture it." Our visit yesterday afforded us an insight into the subsidiary means adopted by Mr. Pickett to accomplish the result mentioned.

At the Alabama street school the class in primary arithmetic, under charge of Miss Grace Lewellyn, is exercised in mental questions every day. Their answers evidence the fact that their faculties are called into active exercise, and hence what they know as enabling them to answer correctly is due not to the memory, but to the process of reasoning necessary to determine the result of the sum total in the addition, division, subtraction or multiplication of a series of figures. This plan of teaching mental arithmetic cannot be questioned, for its success and thorough results are undoubtedly demonstrated by the little children taught by Miss Lewellyn, a young lady whose industry, system and culture render her services all the more valuable in the schoolroom. This plan of mathematical instruction not only requires a correct and immediate answer to the questions propounded, but imposes an explanation, to give which the most active degree of ratiocination is demanded of the pupil.

Another improvement in the method of instruction—and we judge as witnesses from the evidences that were before us—is the system of the entire class reading aloud together. The pupils thereby abandon the "singing" style of pronunciation, and in a short while assume the proper tone, emphasize correctly, and pronounce with distinctness. The recitation by each child, when called upon, of an original sentence, is another feature that will be commended by all who have an opportunity of watching the practical benefits that must ensue.

The same features characterize the management of the primary or younger classes in the Chelsea school, which is so ably and pleasantly presided over by Mrs. Hampton, and what has been said of the Alabama street institution we as willingly apply to her and her school. In the seventh-grade department of the Alabama street school, taught by Miss Gussie Tovell, still another method for the purposes already indicated has been introduced by Superintendent Pickett. We mean the system of map-drawing upon paper and the blackboards, so as to show the geographical divisions of the earth, the loca-

tions of towns, mountains and valleys, the course of streams, the extent and character of bays, seas and oceans, together with the different water currents, their source, detours, etc. These maps are drawn from memory by the pupils, and demonstrated in a manner that testifies the thorough comprehension they have of the subject. Not only at the Alabama street school, but also at the Chelsea school, did we watch the demonstrations and the drawings by the pupils. "John, draw a map of South America," said the teacher, and in five minutes the task was accomplished. Then another pupil with equal facility drew a map of Europe, and also entered into the explanation of its physical geography with a minuteness not less surprising than instructive and pleasing; still others drew maps of Africa, North America, the Territories of the United States, etc., as well as of ancient Greece, faithfully giving the location of Thessaly, Epirus, Phocis, Arcadia, Laconia, Messina, Argolis, etc.

These exercises were of no ordinary nature, and to go through details systematically, precisely and rapidly, as did the pupils yesterday, necessarily supposes the fact that their minds have been actively engaged in comprehending the minute features that go to make up the whole. Hence it is we see that the faculties are exercised rigidly, yet stimulated to the achievement of great results by the very nature of the generalization demanded. These plans of instruction are of incalculable advantage, and to those teachers whose efforts have been so happily triumphant in demonstrating their benefits, as well as their practical nature, the public cannot be too thankful.

Failure or Success in Life.—Here are useful suggestions from a member of the British Parliament, Lord Derby, who is a robust, manly man. He says:

Take two men, if they could be found, exactly alike in mental and bodily aptitudes, and let one go on carelessly and idly, indulging his appetites, and generally leading a life of pleasure, and let the other train himself by early hours, by temperate habits, and by giving to muscles and brain each their fair share of employment and at the end of two or three years they will be as wide apart in their capacity for exertion as if they had been born with wholly different constitutions. Without a normal, healthy condition there can, as a rule, be no good work; and though that qualification cannot absolutely be secured or preserved by any rules, a little common sense and care will go a long way both in securing and preserving it. On that point I would give you these hints: First, That it is not mental labor which hurts anybody, unless the excess be very great, but rather fretting and fidgeting over the prospect of labor to be gone through; so that the man who can accustom himself to take things cooly, which is quite as much a matter of discipline as of nature, and who, by keeping well beforehand with what he has to do, avoids undue hurry and nervous excitement, has a great advantage over one who follows a different practice. Next, I would warn you that those students who think they have no time for bodily exercise will sooner or later have to find time for illness. Third, when an opportunity of choice is given, morning work is generally better than night work; and lastly—a matter which I should not stop to allude to but that I know the dangers of an over-driven existence in a crowded town—if a man cannot get through his day's labor, of whatever kind it may be, without artificial support ('artificial support'—that means beer or bourbon), it should be a serious consideration for him whether that kind of labor is fit for him at all."

Learned professors have occasionally been outwitted by the sayings of the simple. Dr. Hill, an Edinburgh professor of the last century, met in the suburbs of the city an inoffensive creature who was generally regarded as an imbecile. Somewhat irritated by the creature's intrusion on the privacy of his walk, the professor said to him, "How long, Tom, may one live without brains?" "I dinna ken," said Tom; "how lang hae ye lived yersel?"

THE SCHOOL BOOK QUESTION.—We recently published the figures and estimates of the cost of the present system of supplying school books free to the indigent children in attendance upon our public schools. The sum is not an inconsiderable one, especially in these times, but this very fact of hard times makes it an inopportune occasion to withdraw from our poorer classes the accustomed advantage, and we are glad to say that no one contemplates such a measure. It is true that the surmise is somewhat prevalent that with the utmost caution that can be exercised, many of these free books have found their way into hands of children of parents able, in every thing but disposition, to buy their school books. Such frauds are difficult to detect, and constitute an evil inseparable from the system as it has been pursued.

But now it is proposed, and was carried by a vote of the Board of Education last evening, to introduce in Brooklyn the plan which has worked good results in other cities, to make all the school books free, and a part of the school property. It remains to be acted upon by the Aldermen. But so far as the Board of Education have the power and the responsibility they have adopted the free book system. It will excite controversy. It should receive careful study. There is well-sustained precedent for it. It has worked well elsewhere, and those who are urging its adoption here we believe are doing it on the broadest principle of the greatest good to the greatest number, the advantage that will accrue to the majority of our school children.—*Brooklyn Union.*

MECHANICAL TEACHING.—A little boy once addressed a man thus: "I will tell you all the countries of Europe and their capitals if you will give me five cents." The man paid him the money and he recited the names as agreed promptly and correctly. "Now," said the gentleman, "my little friend, what is a capital, a beast, a bird, or a fish?" "Oh," replied the boy, "any one knows that a capital is a horse. I saw Paris at the race track."

NOUNS OF MULTITUDE.—A little girl was at the picture of a number of ships, when she exclaimed, "See what a FLOCK of ships. We corrected her by saying, that a flock of ships was called a FLEET, and a fleet of sheep was called a FLOCK. And here we may add, for the benefit of the foreigner who is mastering the intricacies of our language in respect to nouns of multitude, that a flock of girls is called a BEVY, and a bevy of wolves is called a PACK, and a pack of thieves is called a GANG, and a gang of angels is called a HOST, and a host of porpoises is called a SHOAL, and a shoal of buffaloes is called a TROOP, and a troop of partridges is called COVEY, and a covey of beauties is called a GALAXY, and a galaxy of ruffians is called a HORDE, and a horde of rubbish is called a HEAP, and a heap of oxen is called a DROVE, and a drove of blackguards is called a MOB, and a mob of whales is called a SCHOOL, and a school of worshipers is called a CONGREGATION, and a congregation of engineers is called a CORPS, and a corps of robbers is called a BAND, and a band of locusts is called a SWARM, and a swarm of people is called a CROWD, and a crowd of gentle folks is called the ELITE, and the elite of the city's thieves and rascals are called ROUGHS, and a miscellaneous crowd of city folks is called the COMMUNITY or the PUBLIC, according as they are spoken of by the religious COMMUNITY or the secular PUBLIC.—*Pitman's Phonographic Magazine.*

MATHEMATICAL FACTS.—Any number of figures you may wish to multiply by 5 will give the same result if divided by 2—a much quicker operation. But you must remember to annex a cipher to the answer, whenever there is no remainder, and when there is a remainder, whatever it may be, annex a 5 to the answer. Multiply 474 by 5 and the answer will be 2,370, divide the same number by 2 and you have 237; and, as there is no remainder, you add a cipher. Now take 357, and multiply by 5; there is 1,785. Divide the same number by 2, and you have 178 and a remainder, you therefore place a 5 at the end of the line and the result is again 1,785.

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

Q. Will an appeal lie where the supervisors do not consent to dismember a joint-district?

A. An appeal will always lie from a "decision" to form or alter a district, or not to do so—that is a refusal; it being understood that a meeting is actually held, and a decision rendered. If on petition to dismember a joint district by attaching it to other districts, the supervisors meet and decide the question, and refuse, an appeal will lie. An appeal would also lie from a refusal to detach a part of a joint district, and form a new district thereof.

Q. If a district is extinguished, under section 16, and attached to one district, to the great inconvenience of some of the people, would an appeal lie?

A. An appeal would be entertained for the reason that while the law is mandatory, and leaves the way of executing the command to the discretion of the supervisors, they are not absolved from the obligation to exercise their discretion so as not to impair the public good.

Q. Our district has maintained no school for a number of years, but on calling the attention of the chairman to the law (section 16), he scouted the idea of setting the district into other districts. What can be done?

A. You can proceed against the board by *mandamus*.

THE TOWN SYSTEM.

Q. Can a town with only one district adopt the town system?

A. The vote to adopt could be taken, but so long as there is but one district it would seem to be undesirable, as there could be no organization of a board of directors. So soon as there are two districts the two clerks could appoint a secretary, and thus make a board. The law should enable a new town to elect the first board, and thus to *start* under the town system.

DISTRICT OFFICERS—THE TREASURER.

Q. Is the treasurer obliged to pay all orders duly drawn and countersigned, without questioning for what service or consideration they are drawn?

A. Every order should specify the object for which it is drawn. The treasurer owes it to himself, his bondsmen and the district, to know that the orders which he pays are lawful.

Q. Can the treasurer use the district funds, without the consent of the board, without paying interest?

A. A treasurer has no authority, and the board can give him none, to use or pay out money for any other than the lawful purposes for which it was raised or apportioned. Paying interest does not make it lawful.

Q. Can the treasurer put out money in his hands not needed at interest?

A. He cannot. (See previous question and answer.)

Q. If a person chosen as treasurer fails to give bonds, but acts, by consent of the board, will a refusal or neglect to pay over funds belonging to the district be deemed embezzlement?

A. It would be so deemed. He cannot plead the fact of not being the lawful treasurer, if an action is commenced against him.

Q. Should a treasurer fail to pay legal orders, on demand, where is the remedy? Shall the holder of the orders commence suit against the district or enter complaint to the director and have him prosecute?

A. The holder of the order is entitled to recover the amount due from the treasurer personally. (18 Wis., 627.) It is also his duty to make complaint against the treasurer within thirty days, of the withholding of the money, which the law declares to be embezzlement. (See Rev. Statutes, Chap. 165, secs. 30, 31 and 32, or School Code, p. 60.) The director is to prosecute for any breach of condition of treasurer's bond. (Sec. 34, Code.)

Q. Who is responsible for money embezzled, or put into the hands of a treasurer who has not given bonds?

A. A lawful treasurer is of course liable on his bond for all moneys coming into his hands. Whether an outgoing

treasurer who should deliver funds to a successor duly chosen, but who had given no bonds, would still be liable, is a question for the courts. I am inclined to think he would, though it would be a hard case. The law here seems to be defective.

THE DISTRICT CLERK.

Q. Is it the duty of the clerk to find a teacher?

A. Not any more than of the director or treasurer? The law was changed in 1872.

Q. Must the clerk take the school census every fall, without compensation?

A. It is made his duty to do so. He ought to be paid, at least for this work, that it may be done carefully.

DISTRICT BOARD.

Q. Is it lawful for the board to contract with one of their own number to teach school?

A. It is not forbidden by statute, but it is obviously improper. It was held by our Supreme Court (25 Wis., 551), that as a member of a school board holds a fiduciary relation to the district, it is against public policy to allow him to place himself in an antagonistic position, and obtain a contract for himself from a board of which he is a member. The question came up on the validity of a contract with a director to build a school house. A contract with a member of the board to teach the school should not be allowed for the same reasons.

Q. Is it lawful for a member of a board to have an interest in a contract for building a school house for the district?

A. The decision quoted above bears on this question. It would be of very doubtful propriety for instance, to contract with a firm in which a member of the board was a partner, and though such a contract might not be pronounced invalid, it would be open to suspicion; its terms might be called in question. All such transactions are to be discouraged.

Q. Can the board contract with the wife of the clerk to teach the school?

A. Yes, if she is a qualified teacher. But what is lawful is not always expedient. Such contracts are very apt to breed dissatisfaction.

LEGALITY OF SCHOOLS.

Q. Is it lawful, after 126 days of English school, to have 21 days of German school?

A. The law does not authorize or provide for any kind of school but an English school, but merely that a foreign language may be taught in a public school one hour a day, if the teacher is competent, or an instructor can be obtained. But the school itself must be taught in the English language (sec. 55,) and no person is entitled to receive a certificate "who does not write and speak the English language with facility and correctness." (Sec. 102.)

Q. (*a*) A clerk hires a teacher without the consent of any other member of the board. Is it a legal school? (*b*) Two members of the board meet and hire a teacher without calling a meeting of the board, and hence the third member knows nothing about it. Is it a legal school?

A. A distinction is to be taken between a legal contract and a legal school. The clerk cannot legally hire a teacher; it is the business of the board, and before the board can hire legally there must be a meeting—either one called under sec. 46, or an accidental meeting of the whole board, as provided for in chapter 97, General laws of 1875. But suppose a teacher is hired in an illegal manner, and teaches the school, being a "qualified" teacher, that is, one holding an unexpired certificate. It does not follow that the *school* is to be accounted as illegal; nor that the district must lose its school money; nor that the teacher is not entitled to compensation for "services rendered," the school being allowed to go on by all the board and the people, notwithstanding the illegal hiring.

Q. Nothing is said in a teacher's contract about teaching Saturdays. The clerk gives verbal consent for her to teach. The treasurer sends a written request for her not to teach. Would the school taught on Saturdays be a legal school?

A. It would not. The clerk's verbal permission amounts to nothing. The treasurer's request is proper. The only

way to make teaching on Saturday legal is to have it provided for in the contract.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Q. Can a teacher be hired by petition passed round, without consent of a majority of the board?

A. Of course not. The board may act in accordance with the petition, if they judge it expedient, and hire the teacher desired.

Q. Can the teacher hold debating schools, in the school house, and burn the wood, without paying for it?

A. The board can grant the use of the house, and it would be churlish for any body to object to the use of the wood for a well conducted debating school; but the teacher has no *right* to it.

Q. Can the clerk's wife hold the office of district treasurer?

A. Women can now hold district offices, and therefore under this and other existing laws, I suppose the clerk's wife may be treasurer. The policy of such an arrangement is another question.

Q. Does an appeal lie when there is a tie vote at a district meeting?

A. The district comes to no decision, one way or the other; therefore there is no ground of appeal.

HURRY.—No two things differ more than hurry and despatch. Hurry is the mark of a weak mind, despatch of a strong one. A weak man in office, like a squirrel in a cage, is laboring eternally, but to no purpose, and in constant motion without getting on a jot; like a turnstile, he is in everybody's way, but stops nobody; he talks a great deal, but says little, looks into everything, but sees into nothing; has a hundred irons in the fire, but few of them are hot, and with those few that are, he only burns his fingers.

OF the educated man it may be said that he is never less alone than when alone. No society is so pleasant and so profitable as that which the educated man can enjoy in solitude. Thus every one who entertains a true idea of education sees that at home it is a friend, abroad an introduction, in solitude a solace, in society an ornament.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

The University—The Graded Schools—The Normal Schools.

Our noble State University has lately had its commencement, elsewhere noticed, and its evident growth and prosperity are matters of just pride. Under a wise policy, and with such headship as it now enjoys, its course must still be onward. To this end the action of the legislature must be governed by wisdom, and is a fair subject of criticism.

In 1871 an amendment of the constitution was adopted, the object of which was to restrict the legislature in certain matters of local or private legislation, and in granting special privileges. The amendment in question requires provision to be made for such matters by general laws. This is proper, and in accordance with that fundamental principle of our democratic system, which is that all shall be held equal before the law. In Europe, caste and privilege are crumbling down, and even Asia is beginning to feel the influence of the great wave which started from our shores in 1776.

Contrary to the spirit of its own previous action, the legislature enacted (Chap. 63, Gen. Laws 1872,) "that all graduates of any graded school of the state who shall have passed an examination at such graded school satisfactory to the faculty of the University for admission into the sub-freshman class and the college classes of the University, shall at once and at all times be entitled to free teition in all the colleges of the University."

We are not so much surprised that such a law should have been recommended as we are that it should have been passed. It is yet more surprising that it should have continued three years unrepealed. If our University were able, as in Michigan, to throw open her doors to all suitably qualified youth of the state free of tuition, and without any distinctions, it might be good policy to do so, though some would call that in question. Even education may be made too cheap. But to say to a certain class of those who happen already

to have superior privileges, who without any special sacrifice can gain the requisite preparation at their own doors, "come and enjoy the privileges of the University also, free of tuition, and stay if you please, five or six or seven years" —for we suppose this might be claimed, while all others, though equally well fitted to come, and though their preparation may have been gained at much sacrifice, are denied this privilege, is glaringly unjust.

The reason assigned for this discriminating and partial policy, was that it would bring the University and the graded schools into more intimate relations. We take it that the only important relation that needs to be recognized and fostered is that which naturally subsists between the object and purpose of the University and the talent and scholarship of our youth, wherever they may be found, and however that scholarship may have been acquired. The intellectual gifts and attainments of the young are in one sense a common capital which it is the policy of the State, not only by the University but by all other suitable means, to foster and encourage. But in doing that no favoritism should be shown. And hence the admission of a nominee from each assembly district, free of tuition, is to be condemned, unless it shall be the scholar who stands best in a fair competitive examination, and not the favorite of the assemblyman.

We hear a good deal about the University as the apex of the public school system. But the truth is, it stands on its own base, and any attempt to make it rest on the common schools is injurious to both. University education, in the nature of things, is for the few and not for the many. The public schools, including the graded schools, mistake their function and stand in their own light, if they shape their principal work with reference to the University or any other college. Let them aim to do their own proper work thoroughly and well, which is to help prepare the great army of boys and girls for active life, for the duties of citizenship, not to fit for college. It is not incompatible with this that our best high schools enable aspiring and gifted youth to acquire this "fit," but it is after all but a subordinate part of their legitimate work. For our lower graded schools to be turned away from their proper aim, which should be to build up and carry out a good course of study for their pupils, for the sake of sending a few "to Madison," not to enter college, or with the intention of remaining long, but to wear the empty honor of being dubbed a "sub-freshman," is foolish, as well as injurious to the school and the pupil. By all means let those who have an aptitude for scholarship and a desire for higher education go to college, if they can, but not until they are ready. But by all means let not a young person who has no such intention, or even if he has, be encouraged to leave a good school under a good teacher, if there is one, at or near home, that he may go and join the unwise throng who, principally for the name of the thing, come to the University, or go to some other college, and recite probably in at least half their studies to young tutors, scholarly perhaps, but without experience. Aside from the question of the instruction they get, contact with college life, and college ways and discipline, is not the thing for them. Better by far to be in their old school room, under their old teacher, in short—*at home.*

For the past fifteen years at least it has often been said, "The University should get rid of its preparatory department." In 1860, we think it was, Chancellor Barnard effected an arrangement by which the Madison High School was to serve as a Preparatory Department for the University, and thus relieve it of the stigma sometimes cast upon it, of being itself but a High School for Madison. It would not be difficult perhaps to explain how it happened that the plan was abandoned; but we take as an indication of a large fund of good sense among the instructional and governmental authorities of the University at the present time that some similar arrangement is understood he contemplated or at least desired. The president and professors are certainly not

the men to take any pleasure in seeing the annual catalogue largely filled with the names of mere academical pupils who in no proper sense belong there. They must often feel that their fair demesne sadly needs to be cleared of the surrounding and intruding growth of saplings, that the legitimate trees of their own planting and watering may have room, light, air, and food enough, and grow and show themselves in their own just proportions.

In 1873, seven colleges, including the University, reported 489 students in the college classes—a large number of them being in the "scientific course," and 1,705 other students. Three academies reported 468 students. The colleges were apparently doing nearly four times as much academic as collegiate work, and nearly four times as much as the academies. The showing was better in 1874, but it is evident enough that in addition to all the high schools are doing in their respective localities, there is a large need of more facilities for secondary education and we are glad to know that the authorities connected with the University are considering how this may be brought about, so far as it relates to their own wants and interests especially. "Town high-schools," if established, will tend to increase the need and the demand for academic work —work which such town schools cannot do, and which it is not the province of the college to do.

There is another matter, of analogous import, which touches the future. Being asked the other day, by one of the professors, if it was desired by some of the Board of Normal Regents, as has been rumored, to establish a Normal Department, in connection with the University, we replied that we hoped not, if by such a department was to be understood merely a fifth Normal School, such as we now have. In this hope the professor joined.

It is true that a complete University would embrace among its professional schools one whose object should be to teach didactics, or the science and art of education; and when the proper time comes we hope that such a school may be established in connection with our own University. But the time has not yet come, and probably will not, for many years, for the reason simply that there is no demand for such a school.

There are some considerations of internal economy that might be urged for planting our fifth normal school on University Hill, if it were desirable to turn the University itself into a vast academy. But on any other theory there is every thing to dissuade from it. The University does not desire to get rid of its present large body of academic or high school pupils merely to make room for another body of about the same grade, though the aims of many or most of them might be somewhat different. But it is hardly necessary to discuss this point.

It is believed the River Falls Normal School will rapidly be filled up, next autumn, upon its opening, and so would another one, if opened two years hence, in the great and rapidly growing region around Stevens Point or Grand Rapids. In that direction somewhere will the Normal Board therefore naturally next send forth their missionaries, and plant an educational colony, as they are just about to do in the valley of the St. Croix. The southern half of the State enjoys the presence of most of our higher institutions of learning. Much more than half our territory is north of Oshkosh or Appleton, and more than one-third is north of River Falls.—P.

EDS. JOURNAL:—In the article headed, "How We Grow," G. Harper says: "In 1867, 3,600,000 square miles were added to our domain by the purchase of Russian America." The above does not correspond to the figures usually given. According to McNally's Higher Geography, the area of Alaska is 400,000 square miles, U. S., total, 3,446,188. W. F. MASON.

The statement was incorrect. Zell's Encyclopedia gives 578,000 square miles to Alaska, which, multiplied by 640, becomes 369,920,000 acres. This perhaps was the statement intended, and possibly we misprinted.

GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

In the history of letters and education, the term "University" has a tolerably well settled import. What the ideal university is, and what any institution of learning should be, or should at least attempt to be, that would take rank as a university, is best illustrated perhaps by going to Germany.

The newly consolidated empire of Germany, now in many things the foremost power in the world, has within its limits at this time, twenty universities. The oldest of these is Heidelberg, founded in 1386; and in all Germany only Vienna (1348) and Prague (1356), both in German Austria, are older. The youngest one, Strassburg, was founded some two years after the close of the late Franco-Prussian war, but sprang at once into vigorous life, having now 83 professors and teachers in all, and 600 students. These twenty universities form in some sense a whole, having a common aim and life, bound together in close sympathy and relations, governed by the same great principles and general laws, admitting a free and generous interchange or transfer of studenis and professors, and forming all together, a most important, most characteristic, and we may well say the noblest institution of the country. In no other land is to be found a system of higher education that can be compared with that of Germany.

The great characteristic of the German university is its exalted aim and peculiar freedom. In some just sense of the term it would encourage and impart a *liberal* education. It would encourage men to seek knowledge, to search after truth, for its own sake, and not with a view simply to its mere practical advantages; and as to the proper manner of the search, and the proper nature of the help to be rendered, the Germans express their idea by the terms *Lehrfreiheit* and *Lernfreiheit*—that is freedom on the part of the professor to teach what he chooses and as he chooses; and freedom for the student to select both his studies and teachers (and therefore to change his university if he desires); in short, his emancipation from the prescribed drill and routine of the lower schools.

This will be more intelligible and seem more reasonable when it is remembered that a student can gain admission to the university only when he shows he is fit for it, has reached the requisite "ripeness," as they call it. To this end he must have gone through the prescribed studies of one of the gymnasia, or at least an equivalent. Now the course of study at a German gymnasium may not spread out as much, on paper, as that of on American college, but it is as a rule, so all authorities assert, a good deal more thorough. The graduate is therefore a student; he knows how to study; he has some solid scholarship; some mental robustness; and while the average American college graduate may be more versed in the ways of the world, and more showy, he is by no means in an equal degree a student. A German university then is is not a college; it follows what we call the college, and our best colleges would do little more than fit for it; most of them would not do that properly. There is no need, therefore of any such routine and rigid rule and discipline as our college is supposed to require.

But more than this: it is only through the university, as a rule, that the learned professions or high places of civil office or honor can be reached; and no man can get *through* the university except by hard work. It is taken for granted that a student means work, that he does not come to trifle, and little attention is given to him individually. If he is a mere trifler, there is no need of throwing him out; he will soon drop out.

The German university does not pretend to teach everything; but on the other hand it is not confined to a prescribed curriculum, measured by certain books. It aims to explore more or less fully the vast realms of literature and science—to lay under contribution the whole compass of human thought and philosophy. No one professor aspires to teach the whole of any one subject, much less three or four subjects—men of real learning learn

modesty—but he has prepared himself by thorough culture and long investigation, as a student and as a *privat-docent*, to teach as a master, some branch or related branches of a subject. In other words, he is a specialist. In this way everything is taught thoroughly and exhaustively, and the fact that in all the larger universities at least there are several professors who lecture on the same subjects creates a sharp and healthful rivalry, and gives the student a choice of teachers in the same institution.

For instance, a student at law, according to a recent statement, would find in Gottingen about sixty courses of lectures on the various branches of that study, covering the whole field from the Pandects and the Institutes down to the Code Napoleon and English Constitutional History. In like opulence, according to the breadth of the field, the student finds means of instruction in medicine, theology, natural science, philology, mathematics, philosophy, pedagogics, etc., etc.

It will readily be seen, from this brief sketch, our chief authority for which is a recent fascinating work by James Morgan Hart, that the German university is altogether a different affair from anything we have, or have thought of, unless the project for a "national university" be an exception. In regard to that project we express the humble and diffident opinion that if attempted it will not be a success, for the reason that we already have the germs and beginings at least of real universities, and that these ought to become such in reality; and for the further reason that in such a vast and growing confederation of states as we have, we ought to contemplate not one but a series of national universities, all equal to the best the world has yet seen or thought of. These should be developed out of what we have, or planted anew—and we see no need of that at present—north, south, east and west. Such institutions, bound together as in Germany in a lofty and emulous brotherhood, living above and beyond the narrowness and pretense, and bigotry of little petty colleges, would help in an eminent degree to save our nation from its self-immolation on the altar of greed and ignoble ambition, by raising up a body of scholars, of thinkers, of statesmen,—of men in short who can see beyond the folly, the vanity and the fanaticism of the hour, and who will bow down neither to Mammon nor Moloch.—P.

THE LIBRARY LAW OF '59.

The two Annual Reports of Hon. Lyman C. Draper, fourth Superintendent of Public Instruction of Wisconsin, were volumes of high educational value. Reports exhibiting greater industry, and a clearer insight into the defects and needs of the educational system of the State have been prepared by no other incumbent of the office he held. His chief recommendations have stood the test of time, and either have already been or now ought to be incorporated into the school laws of the State. Among these recommendations were the County Superintendency, the Township System of School Government, Township School Libraries, and a State Board of Education.

The chief need of the State Mr. Draper conceived to be a system of Town School Libraries, and it is his elaborate and admirable paper on this subject that constitutes the leading feature of his first Report, that of 1858. So clearly and with such a wealth of authority and illustration did he set forth the value of libraries, and in particular the superior excellence of the town over the district library system, that the Legislature of 1859 passed with singular unanimity a law embodying his views and recommendations.

This law had the following four prominent and wise provisions:

1. It provided a permanent Town School Library Fund, by setting apart for the purpose ten per cent. of the School Fund Income, subject to apportionment in 1860, and annually thereafter, together with the proceeds of a special State tax, to be levied each year, of one-tenth of one mill on the dollar valuation of taxable property.

2. It provided that this Fund should

be set apart specifically for establishing and replenishing *Town* School Libraries.

3. It provided that the books for these libraries should be purchased by public State authority, and not by the local school boards.

4. It provided that bound copies of the State Laws, Journal and Documents, should be supplied to the town and city libraries created by the law.

It was estimated that the Library Fund would amount immediately to at least $35,000 annually, while it would of course increase with the increase of the School Fund and of the taxable property of the State.

Two causes conspired to defeat the ends sought in the passage of this law:

First. The law itself failed to make specific provision for the distribution of the Fund and for the purchase and care of the books. Such details were unwisely left to the action of the succeeding Legislature. They were embodied in a bill prepared with great care by a Commission consisting of Hon. Henry Barnard, Hon. Lyman C. Draper, Supt. of Public Instruction, and Prof. J. L. Pickard, appointed by the Legislature of 1859 to make a revision of the School Laws and to report the same to the succeeding Legislature. This bill, however, failed to pass the Senate of 1860, and the library fund of that year remained in the treasury unused.

No action appears to have been taken respecting the law by the succeeding Legislature, except to repeal the clause providing for the libraries a supply of bound copies of State Laws, etc.

Second. The time was inauspicious. The accumulation of the fund went on until the spring of 1862, when the Legislature unconditionally repealed the law and ordered the transfer to the General Fund of the Library money that had accrued from the tax, and to the School Fund of the money that had been taken therefrom. As we are informed through the courtesy of Hon. Ferdinand Kuehn, the present State Treasurer, the total amount so transferred March 31st, 1862, was $88,784.78. The immediate cause of the repeal was the fact that the nation was already unsteady from the first upheavings of the earthquake of civil war. The instinct of self-preservation swallowed up all other considerations, and the money that one law had dedicated to books, a later one re-dedicated to bullets. The beneficent Library Law went down as so many other precious things went down in that fiery struggle.

It is now thirteen years since the repeal of this law and the appropriation of the library money for other purposes. During all this time the district library system has been growing weaker. The books have steadily decreased in number, and throughout the State as a whole the libraries now exert next to no influence. The friends of education deplore this and are again looking about for some more popular, more efficient and permanent plan, which shall afford to the masses of the people the rational enjoyment and the culture to be found in abundant and well selected reading.

This plan, with a single modification, will be found in the old Library Law of '59. That modification is one of the vital features of the present High School Law, —namely, State aid not taking the place of, but merely *stimulating local action.* Let the new Library Law, then, create a system of strictly *town* and *city* libraries, let it provide a permanent fund, let it offer to every town and city to pay one-half the cost of an annual purchase of books, within certain wise limits, let it infallibly *secure good books* and *enforce proper care of the same*, and Wisconsin will have an added means of future greatness in the increased intelligence of her citizens scarcely inferior in results to her present school system.

"Books," said Superintendent Pickard in his first Annual Report, "are direct educational agencies. They are teachers, often more potent than the living teacher. They are ever present, not confined to three or six months' work in each year, but constant companions of the child, silently but surely molding the thoughts and fashioning the lives of their pupils. No agency aside from that of the living

teacher, has done more than the School Library towards making good citizens. A taste for reading acquired in youth has done much towards furnishing the world with its best men."

THE HIGH SCHOOL LAW.

The favor with which this law has been received more than meets the expectations of its friends. Action has already been taken in many parts of the State looking to the establishment of Free High Schools, and such action is contemplated in very many other places.

The State Superintendent expected to prepare and issue before this a circular setting forth the advantages of the new law and giving such comments thereon as would make its provisions clear and enable action under it to be taken understandingly and correctly. The publication of this circular has been delayed partly by a desire to ascertain more fully how the law was received, what points in it were found obscure, what standard of admission could be fixed upon as the wisest, and what course or courses of study would best subserve their purpose; and partly by a pressure of other official duties which has recently been exceptionally great. It is expected the circular will shortly be printed and sent to the numerous parties who have applied for copies.

Meanwhile we print the following letters from President Albee and Senator Read as samples of a large number which fairly prove the wide interest in the law to which we have above alluded:

OSHKOSH, Wis., May 9, 1875.

SUPT. SEARING—*Dear Sir:* I learn of proposed High Schools in several villages in this region, stimulated by the law of last winter. I believe it will dot the State thickly with *nuclei* of culture, which will give "common-school" study a zest, and aim which does not to-day exist. It has seemed to me that this dearth of higher educational facilities in the rural districts of the entire West is leading to a distaste for life upon a farm. We everywhere see men renting or selling their homes to move into cities where they can "educate their children." Something is wrong in our "system" when such an alternative is forced upon a parent—ignorance or a breaking of home ties or influences. For these reasons I look with high hope for a widely beneficent influence to come from this encouragement of the State to every locality. Sincerely yours,

G. S. ALBEE.

KEWAUNEE, Wis., June 5.

HON. EDWARD SEARING, *State Sup't of Pub. Instruction*—MY DEAR SIR: It gives me pleasure to be able to inform you that at a special town meeting held in the town of Kewaunee on Friday last for the purpose of considering and determining the question of organizing the town into a free high school district and establishing a free high school therein, under the provisions of the law of last winter, the proposition was carried without a dissenting vote. The attendance was quite large, and the feeling developed was entirely favorable to the measure. At a special district meeting held in this village, for the purpose, the evening previous, the use of one of the rooms in the village school building was unanimously tendered to the town, furnished and rent free, for high school purposes, for a period of three years. We have an excellent school building for a village of this size, which was completed last year at a cost of $5,000. It contains four commodious rooms, three of which are in use by the district. It is proposed to furnish and equip the fourth room, at the expense of the district, for town high school purposes. We hope to have the high school in operation by September. Very truly yours,

JNO. M. READ.

Special Notice.

The State Superintendent has on file many applications from teachers for positions. If school boards desiring to fill vacancies for the coming year choose to send to him a statement of their needs, the amount of salary to be paid, &c., he will cheerfully aid them to secure competent teachers.

THE STATE UNIVERSITY—COMMENCEMENT.

This important and attractive educational festival came off on the 16th of June. As if in sympathy with the occasion, the weather was superb, and dame Nature was all smiles. Dispensing with the antiquated and somewhat childish ceremony of a procession, the President, Professors, Students, and others interested assembled informally, packing the Assembly chamber to its utmost capacity. Neither as to its size or acoustic qualities is it a suitable place, but the best perhaps to be had at present.

We have not room to describe and characterize the Orations and Essays of the young gentlemen and ladies who appeared upon the platform. Suffice it to say that they were fully up to the average of such occasions, and we thought better, as a whole, than last year—as far as we heard them. Eleven orations and seven essays of five minutes each, together with three Special Orations and one Special Essay, interspersed with appropriate and enlivening music, agreeably and instructively filled up the time, and gave pleasing evidence of much talent, well cultivated. As usual a number of the graduates were excused from appearing.

Eleven young men and one young woman were sent forth as Bachelors in Arts, eight and seven respectively in Science, and one young man in Letters. Besides these literary degrees, thirty-six young men were made Bachelors of Law, three of Engineering, and two more Masters of Engineering. Robert Henry Brown, for some time a Tutor in the University, was made a Master in Science. The whole number of degrees thus conferred was seventy. W. D. Parker, President-elect of the River Falls Normal School, and Samuel Shaw, Principal of the High School of this city, received the deserved honor of Master of Arts.

The "Lewis Prize," given for the best Commencement Exercise, was awarded to Miss Fannie West, of Milwaukee. In her absence, it would have gone we judge to Mr. Frederick S. Huntington, of Marshall, whose oration excelled both in matter and manner. Some perhaps would have awarded it to Mr. A. S. Frank, of this city, or Mr. J. W. Mills, of Lancaster, both of whom spoke remarkably well. The performances generally showed care and painstaking, both in the students and their teachers. The Essays by the young ladies drew forth many flattering compliments, and the delivery was uncommonly good.

Altogether, the day was one to be remembered, and marked the advancing prosperity and usefulness of the institution. Regents, President, Faculty and Students, have reason to take courage, and the public to feel renewed satisfaction.

A SUGGESTION OR TWO.

For the benefit of those who feel apprehension lest the Institute System of Wisconsin is about to suffer violent change, we will say that no such change is contemplated. The present system we consider efficient and vigorous and do not see how it could easily be bettered. Other States are copying after it—a fact of which we can be justly proud.

The men who constitute the chief practical support of our system—the Institute Conductors—we believe to be faithful, competent and successful workers, possessing the confidence of the Board of Regents who employ them and of the teachers who are instructed by them.

After saying all this, we nevertheless believe that an exclusive policy of non-intercourse with other people would not be good for even a nation in which were centered all wisdom, and skill, and culture, and virtue. Such a policy is destructive of the very things it would cherish. Without the friction of intercourse and competition wisdom would degenerate into vanity, skill would forget its cunning and virtue lose its lustre. Communication is the very life of culture, of progress, of civilization.

We headed a brief article in our last issue "A Tour of Wise Men," chiefly because of the wisdom shown by these men in making a visit of inspection among the Normal Schools of the Eastern

States. They are men seeking the highest welfare of the schools here under their charge. They were wise in seeking to find elsewhere possible excellencies worthy of imitation, improved methods, new or enlarged ideas, higher inspiration. The same spirit—of wisdom, we believe—induced the Institute Committee, to gladly avail themselves of the opportunity to secure for a brief season the services in our own State of a distinguished and successful Institute worker from the East. The design was to supersede nobody, to change nothing, but simply to give additional vigor and variety to a work that is already well organized and successful. We believe New England can learn something from the West, but with equal depth of conviction we deprecate the vain notion that the West can no longer get any good from New England.

While on this subject we may say that it did not surprise us to learn from one of the Normal School Presidents that the most striking, and upon the whole the most satisfactory, work and results witnessed during his tour, were in the Toronto Normal School. It has for some time been our publicly expressed conviction that our Canadian neighbors have quietly wrought out a system of public instruction that is not only better than ours, but the best on this continent.

It is the earnest hope of the writer of these lines that he may be able to personally investigate the character and working of this system, during the coming Fall,—and that not merely in a few cities, but in the country neighborhoods of at least one Province.

School Money.—The Income of the School Fund, amounting to $184,629.64, was apportioned on the 15th of June, on the children returned for the school year ending August 31, 1874. The number of children drawing money was 450,304, at 41 cents *per capita*.

Prof. E. S. Carr, formerly of our University, has been nominated for State Superintendent in California.

NORMAL SCHOOL COMMENCEMENTS.

The year just closed has been one of large prosperity with the three Normal Schools. They have been filled with zealous students, have probably done more thorough work than in any previous year, have just sent forth for the first time about twenty-five graduates from the full four years' course, and have conferred upon somewhat more than that number "certificates," evidencing the completion of the Elementary Course of two years. The precise number receiving Diplomas and Certificates at each school is as follows:

Oshkosh—8 diplomas, 12 certificates.
Platteville—9 diplomas, 12 certificates.
Whitewater—6 Diplomas, 9 certificates.

We personally visited and examined the Oshkosh and Platteville schools during the closing week, and found our best expectations fulfilled. There was the same admirable order, witnessed and described before, the same air of neatness and comfort throughout the well-appointed buildings. The graduating classes were in the main composed of self-possessed and sensible young men and women, whose prompt replies under examination evinced good instruction, personal industry, and the tact and acquirements that will win success in the school room. There were, of course, exceptions. There were individuals whom no training could make passable teachers, nor even fair scholars. The poor and good are mingled in all graduating classes. The best class that ever graduated from the best college of the country, probably had some "wooden" men in its number. It is not from these, nor again from the geniuses, that a class should be judged: but the whole should be taken into account when a just judgment is desired.

The new courses of instruction of two and four years are perhaps yet an experiment, but there is no good reason to think them less of an improvement than when they were created one year ago. Fullness of time must test them as it must test other features of the Normal School system.

A DEFECTIVE ETYMOLOGY.

It is a groundless etymological refinement to make the term "education" signify literally "drawing out and strengthening" of mental powers. The Latin *educare* from which the English "educate" immediately comes, has no such narrow and technical sense. Its primary meaning is "to lead forth" from childhood—as we say, "to bring up." It refers not to a faculty or faculties, but to the individual as a whole. The temptation to confine its meaning to the mental or moral powers may be great, but for the sake of truth it ought to be resisted. Webster gives as one of the definitions of "educate," "to lead out and train the mental powers," but this is either merely a recognition of the fact that the word is often popularly used in this sense, or a gratuitous assumption that it is the etymological sense. These remarks have been called forth by the definition used by one of the contributors to our present issue.

CORRESPONDENCE.

TEXT BOOKS.—The following has been received by the State Superintendent:

Dear Sir: In my experience as a teacher, which has been exclusively in district schools, I have found a great want in not being supplied with a sufficient number of different text books for the different schools I have been engaged in. As long as the present usage is adhered to of providing books for the children, so long will the teacher be unable to supply himself with a complete set of books that might be used in the different schools he is called on to teach, and without which he cannot do his full duty.

I think that this existing evil can be done away with, if the district board of each school district were to furnish the school, out of the school money that may come into their hands, with a complete set of text books for the use of the teacher. If you could aid, that this emergency might soon be remedied, I am confident that the teachers and our schools throughout the State would thereby be greatly benefited.. Yours, G. H. KRUSCHKE.

APPLETON, Wis.

AN intelligent town clerk, writing of the selfishness exhibited by some parties in trying to get into another district, to avoid taxation, remarks:

* * * I for one should favor the township system as the best means for equal taxation, and I fully accord with the article in the last November number of the JOURNAL: "What the Town System can do for us;" but very few here agree with me on account of pure selfishness. I might say more, but I fear this letter is already too long now, therefore I will close.

ANOTHER one says, in a letter received some time ago:

Dear Journal,—You have come into my hands at the very last moment of official capacity as clerk of the town of Suamico and inadvertently retained a few days,—scarcely long enough to look over your pages to my satisfaction; but long enough to see that those who have not the pleasure and profit of your salutary presence (if justly treated) are losing very much of the choice teachings of experience in Europe and the United States, on practical education. Not so much for ourselves as for our children do we hail your presence. You are much improved since last we saw you. Therefore inclosed is the subscription price from January, '75.

A COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT, explaining the small list obtained at the Spring Examination, says: "Times are so very hard and money so scarce, was the excuse offered, but I think the JOURNAL is constantly improving and every number better than the preceding one. Trusting that you get better encouragement from other sections of the state, I am, etc."

THE writer of "Too Many Cooks," etc., wishes us to correct an inadvertance as to Ponce de Leon (p. 282). It was De Soto who was buried in the Mississippi, and he would say instead, of De Leon, that "he had to abandon his fruitless search, and afterwards die by an Indian javelin, thus proving the vanity," etc.

WE hope our friends will continue to send in their questions for answer or discussion, and submit the following:

EDS. JOURNAL—*Sirs:* The conditions, according to Webster, for the sound of the letter *o* as heard in the word *form*, are, that it has this sound when it occurs before *r* in a monosyllable, or in an accented syllable when *not* followed by a vowel or another *r*, and in the derivations of such words.

Nothing is said about exceptions. Now, in some of the derivatives of abhor, as abhorrible, abhorrent, &c., words which seem to conform to the conditions named above, the regular short sound of *o* is given. Can any reasons be given for this irregularity?

In a synopsis of the principles of pronunciation, as made out by one of the most thorough orthœpists in the State, the same conditions are ascribed to the letter *a* as heard in the word *care*, as those ascribed to *e* in the word *verge*, *i* in the word *mirth*, &c.

Is there any authority for saying that such conditions belong to that sound of *a*? W. J. BRIER.

BARABOO, WIS.

INSTITUTE WORK—1875.

Meeting of Conductors.

The third annual meeting of Institute Conductors will be held at Eau Claire, July 26–28, 1875, under the direction of Prof. Robert Graham.

PROGRAMME.

Monday, July 26th, 1875.

A. M.

9 to 10. Reports — Messrs. McGregor, Thayer, Viebahn.

10 to 11. Language { 1. Paper, A. F. North; 2. Discussion.

11 to 12. Class Exercise—Civil Government, with plan of study—G. S. Albee.

P. M.

2 to 3. School Organization—Paper by M. Kirwan, followed by discussion.

3 to 4. Health of Pupils—Paper—O. A. Wright. Discussion.

Tuesday, July 27th.

A. M.

9 to 10. Reports — Messrs. Salisbury, Terry and Hutton.

10 to 11. History—Class Exercise, with plan of teaching—A. Salisbury.

11 to 12. Geography — Class Exercise, with detailed plan of teaching—C. E. Viebahn.

P. M.

2 to 3. School Management—D. McGregor and I. N. Stewart. Discussion.

3 to 4. Manners and Morals—G. S. Albee.

Wednesday, July 28th.

A. M.

9 to 10. Reports—Barns, Beck and Graham.

10 to 11. Natural Science in Mixed Schools—Professor Beck.

11 to 12. Reading — Institute Exercise, with plan of teaching—R. Graham.

P. M.

2 to 3. Consideration of Institute-work for 1875. 1. Normal. 2. Short.

3 to 4. Reports of Committees.

The above programme has been prepared by Prof. Graham, at our request.

EDWARD SEARING,
Superintendent Public Instruction.

W. H. CHANDLER,
WM. E. SMITH,
Committee on Institutes.

WISCONSIN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

Twenty-Third Annual Session, to be held at Eau Claire, July 28th–30th, 1875.

PROGRAMME.

Wednesday Evening, July 28.

8.00. Introductory Exercises.

Lecture—Architecture—Pres. John Bascom, LL. D., Madison.

Thursday Morning, July 29.

9.00. Opening Exercises.

9.15. President's Address—J. Q. Emery, Fort Atkinson.

9.35. Business.

9.50. Paper—Methods of Teaching Primary Reading—J. B. Thayer, Menominee.

General discussion of the same.

10.30. Recess.
10.40. Essay—The Coming Teacher—Miss Helen M. Bingham, Monroe.
11.00. Paper—Teachers' Examinations and State Certificates—A. F. North, Pewaukee.
General discussion of the same.

Thursday Afternoon.

2.00. Business.
2.15. Paper—Sewing—Hosea Barns, Manitowoc.
2.35. Paper—Function of the Normal School—Pres. Oliver Arey, Whitewater.
General discussion of the same.
3.15. Essay—Are we Savage or Civilized?—Miss M. A. Wadsworth, Fond du Lac.
3.35. Recess.
3.45. Paper—A State System of Education—S. R. Winchell, Milw'kee.
General discussion of the same.
4.25. Educational Intelligence—Short Speeches.

Thursday Evening.

8.00. Lecture—Hon. John H. French, LL. D., Vermont.

Friday Morning, July 30.

9.00. Opening Exercises.
9.10. Business.
9.20. Paper—Educational Backbone—E. B. Wood, Oshkosh.
9.40. Paper—Drawing—Wm. E. Anderson, Waukesha.
10.00. Reading—Selections—Miss A. R. Luse, Albion.
10.25. Recess.
10.35. Paper—The Distirict School Curriculum—Albert Salisbury, Whitewater.
General discussion of the preceding topics.
11.25. Report of Committee on Teachers' Institutes—Messrs. D. McGregor, W. H. Chandler, J. H. Terry.
Consideration of the same.

Friday Afternoon.

2.00. Business.
2.15. The Student's Hope—Prof. E. H. Merrill, Ripon.
2.35. Essay—Can we do it?—Miss Martha Kidder, Oshkosh.
2.55. Paper—A State School Tax—James MacAlister, Milwaukee.
General discussion of the same.
3.35. Recess.
3.45. Paper—A State Library System—Hon. Edward Searing, Madison.
General discussion of the same.
4.30. Reports of Committees.
5.00. Election of Officers.

Friday Evening.

8.00. Lecture—Language Study—Its means and its end—Hon. J. L. Pickard, Chicago.

RAILWAY AND HOTEL SPECIAL RATES.—The West Wisconsin Railway will sell return tickets at one-fifth regular rates to those who pay full fare in coming. The C. & N. W., the C., Mil. & St. P. Railways, and the Keokuk Northern Line Packet Co., will sell return tickets at one-third regular rates. The G. B. & M. R'y, will sell excursion tickets to Merrillan and return. The Wis. Valley R'y will sell tickets at half fare to teachers on presentation of their certificates.

Return tickets on C. & N. W. R'y, good until August 6; on C., M. & St. P. until August 10; on Mississippi steamers until August 7; on West Wisconsin until after Minneapolis meeting.

The Eau Claire House and the Peabody House will each entertain at $1.50 per day.

The ladies will be entertained free by the citizens of Eau Claire.

J. Q. EMERY, Fort Atkinson, President.
B. M. REYNOLDS, La Crosse, Ch'n Ex. Com.
A. J. HUTTON, Eau Claire, Secretary.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The fifteenth annual meeting of the National Educational Association will be held in Minneapolis, Minnesota, on Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday, the 3d, 4th and 5th days of August, 1875. The meetings of the Association will be held in the Academy of Music, situated in the immediate vicinity of the hotels and residences. The Sections will meet in adjoining rooms.

The meetings of the General Association will be held on the mornings and evenings of each day. The several Sections will hold their meetings in the afternoons.

GENERAL SESSION.

Lectures and discussions are expected from the following persons:

D. C. Gilman, President Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.; J. B. Angell, President University of Michigan; John Eaton, Jr., National Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.; Duane Doty, Superintendent Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan; A. P. Marble, Superintendent Public Schools, Worcester, Mass.; Leon Trousdale, State Superintendent Public Instruction, Nashville, Tenn.; W. F. Phelps, President State Normal School, Winona, Minn.; Dr. J. W. Hoyt, Madison, Wis.; Miss Grace C. Bibb, City Normal School, at St. Louis, Mo.; Wm. W. Folwell, President State University, Minneapolis, Minn.; Lewis Felmeri, Professor of Pedagogics at the University of Klausenberg, Austria; H. A. M. Anderson, Superintendent Public Instruction, Frankfort, Ky.; J. B. Merwin, of St. Louis. The subjects of Agriculture and Polytechnic Instruction, Country Schools, Health in the School Room, School Record Books, Course of Study in High Schools and Colleges, German Pedagogy, Education in the Southern States, Centennial Anniversary, Caste in Education, State School Laws, etc., will be discussed.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

1. *Relation of the State to Higher Education.*—Prof. W. Leroy Brown, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia.

2. *The Military Sciences in Colleges and Universities.*—Lieut. A. D. Schenck, U. S. A., Iowa University, Iowa City, Iowa.

3. *The Relation and Duties of Educators to Crime.*—Rev. J. B. Bittinger, D. D., Pennsylvania Prison Reform Association, Sewickly, Pa.

4. President D. C. Gilman is expected to speak on the proposed plan of the Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore.

OFFICERS OF THIS DEPARTMENT.—President, George P. Hays, President Washington and Jefferson College, Pa.; Vice President, President I. W. Andrews, of Marietta; Secretary, Prof. C. S. Venable, of the University of Virginia.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

1. *Progress and Reform through Normal Schools.*—Prof. G. P. Beard, State Normal School at Shippensburg, Pa.

2. *The Professional Training of Teachers.*—Miss Delia A. Lathrop, City Normal School at Cincinnati, Ohio.

3. *Relation of the Natural Sciences to the Profession of Teaching.*—Report to be presented by a special committee appointed at Detroit, 1874; James Johonnot, chairman, of the State Normal School at Warrensburg, Mo.

4. *A Course of Professional Instruction.*—Report by a special committee appointed at Detroit, 1874, Prof. C. F. R. Bellows, chairman; State Normal School at Ypsilanti, Mich.

OFFICERS OF THIS DEPARTMENT.—President, J. C. Greenough, State Normal School of Rhode Island; Vice President, W. A. Jones, State Normal School of Indiana; Secretary, C. F. R. Bellows, Mich.

DEPARTMENT OF SEPERINTENDENCE.

OFFICERS OF THIS DEPARTMENT.—President, J. Ormond Wilson, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.; Vice President, A. Abernethy, Iowa; Secretary, R. W. Stephenson, Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Ohio.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

1. *Language Teaching, its Importance and its Methods.*—H. F. Harrington, Superintendent Public Schools, New Bedford, Mass.

2. *What Shall we Do with the Boys?*—J. L. Pickard, Superintendent Public Schools, Chicago, Ill.

3. "*The Relations and Duty of the Teacher towards the Reforms of the Day.*"—Miss Frances E. Willard, late Dean of the Woman's College at Evanston.

OFFICERS OF THIS DEPARTMENT.—President, Prof. Alfred Kirk, Chicago, Ill.; Vice President, Miss Hattie Keeler, Cleveland; Secretary, Miss Lucy J. Maltby, of Missouri.

ACCOMMODATIONS.

Private hospitalities will be furnished

to all who desire them, and who give notice at the earliest possible moment to Prof. O. V. Towsley, Superintendent Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minn.

The following hotels will accommodate members of the Association at reduced rates: First National Hotel and Commercial Hotel, $1.25 per day.

STEAMBOATS.

The Keokuk Northern Line of Steamboats will return all members free, meals excepted, who pay full fare to St. Paul, meals included, on presentation of a certificate of membership, signed by the Secretary of the Association, to the clerk of the steamer, in St. Paul. This arrangement holds good for all points between St. Louis and St. Paul. Members should purchase excursion or round trip tickets to Minneapolis from St. Paul on the Milwaukee & St. Paul R. R., price 50 cents.

RAILROADS.

The Chicago & St. Paul Railway (extending from Chicago and Milwaukee to St. Paul and Minneapolis,) will return all delegates at one-fifth of the regular fare, on certificate of the Secretary of Association that they have attended the same and paid full fare over that road in going thereto.

Chicago & Northwestern Railway, *via* the West Wisconsin Railway, will also return delegates at one-fifth fare on same conditions as given above.

WM. T. HARRIS, President,
St. Louis, Mo.

SUMMER CLASS IN NATURAL HISTORY. —The Scientific Association of Peoria, has arranged for a School for the study of Botany and Zoology, to be held in Peoria, commencing on the fifth day of July next, and continuing four weeks. The object of the School is to give to ladies and gentlemen who desire to study these branches an opportunity to profit by the instruction of some of the best specialists in the country. It will be to impart methods of study which will assist students to pursue their own investigations in science, in an independent and more satisfactory manner; to enable them to systematize the results of their labor; to so instruct them that they will be better able to help themselves in their future studies. The class will be composed largely of those who have only such general knowledge of the subjects they propose to study, as is gained from text books and miscellaneous reading. The instruction will be given by lectures, and by work in the laboratory and field. Professors Wilder and Comstock, of Cornell University, are already engaged, and Prof. Wood, the eminent botanist.

Persons desiring to become members of the School, or to know more definitely concerning it, are requested to address S. H. White, corresponding secretary of the asociation, at Peoria, Illinois.

THE MEETINGS—of Institute Conductors and of our Association at Eau Claire, and of the National Association, at St. Paul, will interest all our readers. The Programmes of Exercises will furnish food for thought even to those who can attend none of them.

SEVERAL typographical errors appear in the address of the junior editor of this JOURNAL presented at the opening of the Madison Free Library, and elsewhere printed in this issue. Being absent he was unable to correct in the proof the errors that had easily and numerously slipped into the original newspaper report, which the JOURNAL compositors copied. If the reader feels inclined to verbal criticism we beg to assure him that he should read "planters of trees" for "planting of trees;" "one labor" for "our labor;" "founders of schools," for "founder of schools;" "a humbler," for "a humble;" "permanence," for "prominence."

THE following paragraph, of general interest to both teachers and parents, we find in a recent Chicago daily:

"In a case where a teacher punished a boy for throwing stones at a teamster, while on his way home from school, the Supreme Court of Maine has decided that either a teacher or parent may correct a child for misconduct on the way

between home and school. In school the teacher's authority is absolute; at home the parent's; to and from school the jurisdiction is concurrent. Both teacher and parent must keep punishment within reasonable limits as to severity."

PALMYRA.—The *Enterprise* speaks highly of the labors of A. H. Porter, as principal of the High School, during the past year. Prest. Arey, from Whitewater, lectured lately we see, and with acceptance to the Palmyrans, on his educational trip to the east. "In conclusion he stated that the East had all the machinery for the complete and satisfactory working of school system, but as compared with the West, it lacked energy and zeal possessed by the younger, fresher West."

PRESIDENT WHITE, of Cornell, says that he knows but of one single instance among the young ladies at the university of inability to keep up with the class. He observes that as a rule they average about 10 per cent. better on the examination papers than do the young men; that they have raised the average of conscience and manliness and decency more than 10 per cent., and that the young woman who took a degree at the last commencement stood easily among the first fifteen in a class of a hundred.

WE are glad to observe that free textbooks are surely winning their way to popular favor and general adoption. We see that the Board of Education of the city of Brooklyn have voted to introduce into that city "the plan which has worked good results in other cities, to make all the school books free, and a part of the school property." We believe that if this rule will work in cities, it will work just as well, if not better, in villages and rural townships.

FOURTH NORMAL SCHOOL.—It will be seen by the advertisement on the second page of the cover, that River Falls wheels into line with her three sisters, in September. President Parker is about removing on to the field with his family, and thus will be early on the ground. We bespeak for the school great success and usefulness, and know that it will be enthusiastically welcomed by the intelligent and progressive population of the St. Croix Valley.

PIERCE CO.—The teachers of this county held an Association, at Ellsworth, under Supt. Reed, June 19, and will have another September 1.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

MANUAL OF ENGLISH RHETORIC. By A. D. HEPBURN, Professor in Davidson College, N. C. Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati and New York. (See advertisement on cover.)

Cowper says somewhere he had thought of pretty much all the rhetoricians had to say. But then every one has not the genius of a Cowper. Professor Davidson has presented the principles of the subject in a happy and lucid way, and has judiciously left out all extraneous matter. He has also brought to bear some light shed by recent writers of celebrity. We do not remember any book on the subject so compact and convenient for the scholar. It is large enough we judge even for the college, with its present multitudinous studies. Modern teaching makes more of practice and less of precept in the art of composition than used to be the case. The title of the book strikes us oddly. There is of course an English Grammar, but is there anything peculiar in English Rhetoric?

COLTON'S NEW INTRODUCTORY GEOGRAPHY.—New York: Sheldon & Co. Price 90 cents.

We have received a copy of a new edition of this excellent little geography. The first part, "Development Lessons," occupying 19 pages, is a happy presentation of the subject in a general way, and without something of the kind, many children, strange as it may seem, really do not know whether the book is telling about this world or some other; or if they find out so much as that, they still are uncertain whether they live on the outside or inside of the world. The maps

are new and clear, the illustrations in good taste, and the letter press well suited to the wants and capacities of ordinary school children. See advertisement, next page.

GENERAL RULES FOR PUNCTUATION, and for the use of Capital Letters. By Prof. A. S. HILL of Harvard College. Cambridge: Chas. W. Sever. 25 cents by mail.

This little pamphlet gives the true principle of punctuation, and a few simple rules, which, however, cover the whole ground. Proof readers (good authorities) approve it, and it is meeting with a ready sale. Though it may seem otherwise the subject is really of serious importance to every one having occasion for any extended use of the pen, as writer or correspondent.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY for July presents the following unusually attractive bill of fare: Pasing the Cataract of the Nile, by Charles Dudley Warner; Identity, by T. B. Aldrich; Broke Jail, by D. H. Johnson; Sonnets from over the Sea, I. English Border; II, On being asked for an Autograph in Venice, by James Russell Lowell; Lightning and Lightning-Rods, by John Trowbridge; Fancies of Spray and Peta; II, Ferns; II, Moss; III, A Tuberose, by Edgar Fawcett; Social Aspects of the German Romantic School, by Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen; Roderick Hudson; VII, Saint Cecilia's, by Henry James, Jr.; The Russians in the East, by George M. Towle; On Re-Reading Tennyson's Princess, by Christopher P. Cranch; The Battle of Bunker Hill, by Horace E. Scudder; Waking, by Frances Anne Kemble; Washington in Cambridge, by Alexander McKenzie; An Obsolete Fine Gentleman by W. D. Howells; Recent Literature, a choice variety; Art, Dubufe's Painting of the Prodigal Son; The Boston Society of Architects' Exhition; and Education—The Woman's Educational Movement in England.

THE INTERNATIONAL REVIEW.—The July number is a rare treat. It contains a valuable paper by Walter Besant, of London, on "The Survey of Palestine;" and criticisms of Schliemann's "Troy," and Smith's "Assyrian Discoveries;" an analytical examination of John Stuart Mill's religious views, by Noah Porter; a review of "Freeman's Works" by President Coppee, of Pennsylvania; "French Literature under the First Empire," by the celebrated and beautiful Roumanian Princess Dora d'Istria; an authentic and fresh paper on "India in some of its Social and Political Aspects," by A. Phillips, Esq., Barrister, Calcutta, India, showing the hypothetical weakness of England by reason of her colonies; and an article on "Deaf-Mutism," by Dr. Gallaudet, the well-known Washington teacher of deaf-mutes.

LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE.—The July number, beginning the sixteenth volume of Lippincott's, is really a gem. It possesses the usual characteristics of this delightful periodical, and has for its own share a very choice variety of entertaining reading. "'May' in June," the illustrated paper of the number, is a description of the situation, accommodations, and general attractions of Cape May, the popular sea-shore summer resort of the fashionable society of the Middle and Southern States. This article is followed by an appetizing variety of unusual excellence. The literary criticism is marked with the usual ability and candor, and altogether the new volume opens with an air of freshness, vitality, and prosperity. For sale by all periodical dealers, 35 cents per number; $4.00 per year. Specimen number, with premium list, mailed on receipt of 20 cents. J. B. Lippincott & Co., publishers, 715 and 717 Market street, Philadelphia.

NEW BOOKS

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By C. L. HOTZE.

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The first two books of the series (which are quite sufficient for a common-school course) will be published in June.

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Benson J. Lossing's New Outline History of the United States.

For Graded and Private Schools. The most copiously illustrated School History ever published. Price $1.25.

4th.

Shaw's New History of English and American Literature.

Prepared for School-room use by Prof. TRUMAN J. BACKUS, of Vassar Female College. In large, clear type. Price $1.50.

Shaw's Specimens of American Literature and Literary Reader.

Prepared by Prof BENJ. N. MARTIN, N. Y. University. (To accompany the New History.) Price $1.50.

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Hooker's New Physiology.

Revised and corrected by Prof. J. A. SEWALL, of Illinois State Normal School. Elegantly illustrated and printed on tinted paper. Price $1.60.

6th.

A Treatise on Plain and Spherical Trigonometry

By Prof. C. F. R. BELLOWS, of Michigan State Normal School. Price $1.50.

7th.

Colton's New Series of Geographies.

The whole subject in two books. *Preliminary Development Lessons* have just been added to the New Introductory Geography. These books are *simple, practical, and comprehensive.* A striking feature is the maps, of which there are three full sets: *Study, Railroad, and Reference.*

We have recently purchased Dr. Wayland's "*Moral Science*," "*Political Economy*," and "*Intellectual Philosophy*;" also Dr. Joseph Haven's "Intellectual and Moral Philosophy" and President Hopkins's "Moral Science." ☞ Sample copies sent free for examination on receipt of half-price. Send for our full catalogue of Text-books.

SHELDON & CO., New York.

WISCONSIN

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THE OPEN DOOR—I.

BY REV. CHAS. CAVERNO, LOMBARD, ILL.

[Address delivered before the Platteville Normal School, June 22, 1875.]

I assume an audience of young people—scholars of both sexes—young people somewhere in their development, at such a stage that it is not an impertinence for me to talk to and with them, about the outlook before them. I have in view such young men and women as have gone out from this institution in these later years—such as now go out—such as are to go out some future day—such, too, as usually gather at these anniversary exercises from the country round about, whose sympathies are enlisted in behalf of what is wrought out on this foundation, and who come that perhaps out of the exercises of this occasion they may meet something that shall be an inspiration and a guide to their life. Those who have yet longer time to remain here must bear in mind that no direction of mine is to interfere with the prescribed curriculum of this institution. Your first, and most likely your only wisdom is to conquer that as it is brought before you by your authorized guides. If there shall be anything revealed, in what I may say, to any one outside these classes specified, I know of no legal prohibition against his appropriation of it.

I was once a teacher. In looking over what I have prepared for this occasion, I have been impressed that that fact is apparent from what I say and the method in which I put it. Certain old proverbs rush to my mind: "Once a teacher always a teacher." "It is hard to teach an old dog new tricks."

"You may break you may shatter the vase if you will,
But the scent of the roses will hang round it still."

A teacher's inspiration runs not only to have particular subjects to elaborate, but to work them out for particular minds.

It is long years since I laid aside the technical business of teaching. Yet I perceive that its impress is upon me still. I have no apologies to offer for this apparent influence. I would not have it otherwise. If one speaks at all, is it not well to have in view not only particular subjects on which to speak, but also particular minds or classes of mind before which to elaborate them?

The exercises of this week in this institution are a declaration of some of the ultimate results of our educational system. The measure of the discipline and acquirement exhibited here is the extent to which society as an organized body feels bound to carry the education of its youth. With the opportunity to master the full curriculum of this institution given to young men and women, society then proclaims its release from further responsibility for their education. The significance of a graduation is not that education is then and there completed, but that from that point education is re-

manded to the scholar's own personal direction. I take the outside, the free point of observation this evening. I want to direct attention in some measure and in some ways to the boundless wealth of opportunity there is before every one with scholarly inclinations.

An expression from the pen of the Exile of Patmos is suggestive of a truth which I wish to expand: "*Behold I set before you an open door.*" What a door is open to our disciplined youth for their development!

THERE IS AN OPEN DOOR TO SOMETHING TO KNOW.

The labor of our youth in school is largely disciplinary. Its object is not to fill the mind with knowledge, but to train and temper it, to develop its athletism, so that when its due time comes, it may go forth in healthy vigor to make its conquests in the unappropriated realm that lies before it. Now, young men and women, the whole world of knowledge lies open before you; and you are invited to enter, conquer and appropriate to yourselves whatever you can from every quarter. If what you want *is to know something*, you need not sigh nor pine for opportunity. There is not one of you but that can find privileges which a life, however prolonged, cannot exhaust. The vision of the old prophet of the time when knowledge should be increased, is certainly fulfilled in our day. Knowledge is not only increased, but the opportunity to acquire it is scattered broadcast. In our day and country one place is just about as good as another in which to gain acquaintance with the intellectual possessions of mankind. The day when knowledge was held inside colleges and seminaries is passed. Books, periodicals, newspapers, containing the last results of thought, are produced so abundantly and so cheaply that they can find their way not only into public libraries, not only into the homes of the rich, but into the homes of the poor.

I want to direct your attention to some of the opportunities that lie open before you in this direction, and indicate some methods which I think it will be useful for you to pursue.

If you are going to develop in knowledge, you can and ought to commence the regular reading of some one (perhaps not more than one) of our great national weekly newspapers, such as the New York *Tribune*, *Times*, *Nation*, *Independent*, or some of the first-class organs of the various religious denominations. While I prescribe a weekly newspaper, and, beyond the metropolitan weekly that I have in mind, add also the weekly of your own town or county—I proscribe a daily. If you have an ambition to make an idiot of yourself, all you have to do is to consume your time and vitality in reading day by day any of our large eight-page dailies, with supplements for Sundays. You might as well hang up over that exercise first as last the motto Dante found ever the portals of the infernal regions. "Farewell hope, all ye who enter here." If you read an eight-page daily you will never do anything else. You do not want to begin newspaper reading till matters have been condensed into the weeklies, and then it is best to limit yourself to one. It is best to change that from year to year, lest you finally become a mere attache—an appendage to the organ you read. With these cautions I most heartily recommend one weekly newspaper.

The newspaper is no longer a mere chronicler of events. Some of our first class weeklies are a compend of the nation's knowledge, or weekly advance in knowledge, in all departments. They are a treasury of metaphysical, scientific, religious, industrial and educational treatises. The most recondite thought is spread in them before their great audiences in the homes of the people. The days of the "Eatandswill Gazette," and its famous contemporary, are numbered. Newspapers are no longer supported because they abuse each other. The days of second and third class writers in them have passed. Our first statesmen, theologians, savans and scholars are contributors to our higher order of newspapers. One of the most profound criticisms

which I have yet seen upon the writings of Herbert Spencer, appeared in the columns of a weekly newspaper. You need not stop to read Darwin or Mivart, before you dare to think upon the question of the origin of species. The main ideas of such men you can find readily enough, by reading the discussions, pro and con, upon their theories, which you find in first class weekly newspapers. On the conclusion of the treaty between the United States and Great Britain by which the Alabama difficulty was settled, Caleb Cushing wrote an article for the *Independent*, of less than two columns length, which gave results that one would vainly strive to compass by reading history for years. Young people who have no ambition to be "brought out" into life cannot neglect this source of culture. A first class weekly is to be read through, casting your eye over even the advertisements—reading especially the articles that look dry and that you are sure you will not understand.

What you want is acquaintance with the mind of the world, and you will be astonished at your growth in this respect in a year, if you will pursue the course thus indicated.

Young people like newspaper stories. But if you are to make anything of yourselves you are to read off from stories on something else. It may take heroism to do it, but if you should be inspired to summon up the nerve to carry you through, I know you would feel thankful forever. It is a luxury to pass to that stage of our lives where mere story reading becomes "flat, stale and unprofitable." Training yourselves thus in newspaper reading of a high order you will pass easily to an interest in the more extended treatises of the Monthlies and Quarterlies. Here you will do better not to read promiscuously but to take one like Harper or Scribner and master it from month to month. You would of course read articles in other magazines as your attention was called to something of value. As to Quarterlies in this country, those of the religious denominations are of the highest order. You can get an introduction to these through the ministers of your various denominations—and if your minister is not taking some quarterly of his own or of some other denomination, an enquiry from you for it, might gently hint to him that it was time he did.

It is a great mistake to suppose that these religious Quarterlies are only taken up with denominational matters. Their religious articles almost always relate to that entrancing, border land where religion blends in history, commerce, industry, science, education and art. In these days of scientific and religious investigation one can hardly keep step with the progress of thought unless he knows the drift of the religious Reviews. For instance in the last number of one of these Reviews that lie on my table are two articles, one on the Vision of Piers Plowman, and the other on the Gudrundichtung, in some respects the German equivalent of Piers Plowman. These articles take you back into the glimmering dawn of thought in the English and German nations respectively. They show you the national genius of brooding over chaos, and bringing some elements out of it into form. If you have not been a reader of our higher Quarterlies like the North American Review or the Religious Quarterlies, you will be surprised at the multitude of new elements with which you will be brought in contact. And you will question whether it will be worth your while to read so much of which you have so little conception. Just one of the things which we must often do is to read wild—to read right out into the darkness, to read precisely what we do not understand and to read right on and leave much that we do not understand behind. The way to light is often to plunge into your darkness and push through it till you strike the light on the other side.

If you are never going to leave anything behind you to wait for the revelation of the more perfect day, then you may sum yourselves up at once. Find your present worth and that is what you will always be. Columbus discovered the new world because he cut loose from the old and sailed into a trackless sea. If

you want to *discover* anything you will have to sail long over the unknown. The possibilities open to you depend upon the persistence with which you still hold yourself to your course in the wide wide sea. The faith principle comes into play as well here as in religion. They that do such things plainly declare that they seek a country, and they that seek find.

A few years ago I began to read the English periodical, the "Contemporary Review." Much of its matter was new and strange. I knew not what the topics meant, neither did I understand their explication. But after reading for years light comes to me from the other side and is reflected back upon very much that I went over in darkness, so that now one of my highest joys is that I understand in some measure the wide range of British thought which finds expression in that Review.

Most men break and fall to pieces over their own cowardice. We laugh at the child who is afraid to go down cellar. But when darkness begins to shut down about any one of the lines of our development we draw off from that line as fearful of its duskiness as the child of the cellar. We want to play in the sunshine. There is no reward except to unblanched courage. Nothing venture, nothing have. "Gott ver lasst den Muthigen nimmer."

We are so novel beridden that it is almost idle to think that any one will read history. But if you will read any of our standard historians—like Bancroft, Palfrey, Motley, Prescott, Macauley, Froude—you would soon begin to feel that there were novels, of quite popular rank, by the cart load, that you would not stop or stoop to read. One of the greatest satisfactions I have, is in going into a bookstore, because I see how much stuff there is that I *don't* want. The story of the blind, sweltering march of humanity across the ages, as it is told in veritable history, is more fearfully interesting and pathetic than any fiction. The truth is stranger than fiction here. You can find old, unused copies of Gibbon's "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" almost anywhere. If you will put forth the resolution to plow through that work, you will rise from its perusal confident that you are master of a thousand years of history, that are a sealed book to every one who has not had the energy to do what you have done, and confident that in a few years you could lay out human history intelligently from that base.

I may as well say here as anywhere that it is often quite a question with a young man or woman struggling for a living to procure the right kind of reading. Personal resources are often limited. We were once in this state in a fair way to the solution of that difficulty. The town library law of 1859 was the foremost step taken in popular education since the establishment of the common school. A noble fund under the provisions of that law had begun to be accumulated. In 1861 the legislature, frightened by the probable cost of the approaching war, confiscated the library fund to general uses.

Among the few members of the legislature of 1861 who can look the ghost of the murdered town library system straight in the eye and *truthfully* say "Never shake those gory locks at me. Thou can'st not not say I did it"—are Hanmer Robbins and myself. We said that we could afford to be killed, or taxed by the war till we were poor, but that we could not afford to be ignorant. I understand that two or three years since an approach was made to the old idea by passing what might be called a "Local Option Library Law." But the old idea was the best. There ought to be no local option about it. A town ought to be compelled to keep an open library for all its people as well as an open school for its children. It pays as well to educate men and women as boys and girls. It is almost an absurdity to educate children to a certain degree and then stop. "Education for the people" should be the motto of our system as well as education for the children. In this direction I believe will be found a partial solution at least of the difficulty under which the country labors of having so many of its intelligent and ambitious citizens drawn off to the cities. A good

town library would be one effort toward equalizing the conditions between country and city life. It would make one excuse the less for living in a city.

Perhaps I have not sufficiently recognized the importance of novel reading. You will want a sandwich of fiction in your other reading. But let the whole brood of novels that is running off the press now a days alone. Ninety-nine out of every hundred of them will sink out of sight in a few years, and you do not want to read so much trash for the sake of getting at the one that is of worth. The way to treat a new born novel is just the way the ancients treated a new born child, expose it. If it dies, let it die. If it has a mission the wolves will suckle it. When it has built its city then you can afford to look at it. You cannot afford to read every *novel* that squalls. Read those only that have lived and won a character, as those of Scott. There is value to his fiction. The "Fortunes of Nigel" will give you a clearer conception of James I. of England than you can get from all history else. "Quentin Durward" is equally valuable as an historical expositor of the life and times of Louis XI. of France. "Ivanhoe" is not only classic fiction but classic history also. A few of the masters of psychology like George Elliott are to be allowed. By all means read the Vicar of Wakefield and commit its quaint expressions to memory by the score. They are the pattest things with which to illustrate in all literature.

You can add a few other authors—a very few—from time to time as some friend whose judgment is really valuable may recommend them to you. Be severe with yourself here and you will very soon learn in serene content to let the whole brood of novels from Sabbath school literature through rush by you on their way down to merited oblivion.

(To be continued.)

In school the teacher's authority is absolute; at home, the parent's; to and from school the jurisdiction is concurrent.

Waste of Labor in the Work of Education—I.

BY P. A. CHADBOURNE, LL. D., PRESIDENT OF WILLIAMS COLLEGE, MASS.

[An address delivered before the American Institute of Instruction, at North Adams, Mass., in August, 1874; also before the Connecticut State Teachers' Association, at New Haven, Conn., October 22, 1874.]

It is supposed that education will prevent waste of labor; that the educated workman in any productive employment will put his blows in the right place and strike them at the right time, so that his labor shall be more efficient for the good of himself and the world than the misdirected efforts of the ignorant man. To make labor efficient, schools are established for the education of workmen in every industrial pursuit.

MISDIRECTION OF LABOR SHOWN TO BE COMMON IN OTHER KINDS OF WORK.

It is plain, however, that the world, as as a whole, is still far enough from making all labor as productive and effective for good as it ought to be. Through ignorance, carelessness, pride, and dishonesty, a large portion of the labor performed is wasted, in that it fails to produce the desired result or at least adds nothing to the rational enjoyment or progress of the race. We have but to observe for a single day to find too abundant illustrations of this subject. A hundred ignorant laborers, working under their own direction, or rather without direction, in any of the great industrial pursuits of the age, would starve if depending upon the products of their own labor, while that same company, directed by an organizing brain, would support themselves in comfort and leave a handsome surplus for their employer. Through the carelessness of servants, property is daily destroyed; through the carelessness of owners and guardians of property, ships are sunk, cities burned, and there is a constant, needless waste of property through rust and decay. All such loss is waste of labor. Pride wastes labor for show and dishonesty wastes labor on poor material or by so cheating in quality of work as to make good material of no account. So we might enumerate a list appalling in magnitude, until we should

feel like joining the crusade to reduce the hours of labor, that men might learn to waste it, if for no other purpose. If ten hours of labor are now sufficient to enable the able-bodied men and women to support the world, if we could stop the waste through ignorance, carelessness, pride, and dishonesty, eight hours would be better. After allowing for all needless misdirection and waste, we do not believe that we now get more than six efficient hours out of the ten during which men really do toil. It is safe to say that more than one-third of the time and strength of all who labor is spent in vain.

IS THERE SIMILAR WASTE IN THE WORK OF EDUCATION?

Does this same waste appear in our own work, the work of education, the object of which is to save all waste? In all honesty, we must say yes. Perhaps I might add, there is waste here from the same causes I have already mentioned: ignorance, carelessness, pride, and dishonesty. I might also add that there is waste oftentimes from the necessity of the case. It often happens, in ordinary work, that we have to labor at a disadvantage. The same is true in education.

DIFFERENT CAUSES OF WASTE STATED.

A portion of this waste from all these causes is due to failure on the part of the teacher, partly it is due to the student, and partly to the parent or guardian. We can only point out the conditions of the waste, and the share belonging to each delinquent will readily appear.

IMPERFECT TEACHING A SOURCE OF WASTE.

(1) The first source of waste I mention is *imperfect teaching.* I do not so much refer to the defective knowledge imparted in the school-room, although this is often painfully apparent to those who attend examinations, especially in the progressive natural sciences—I do not so much refer to this as to the wretched habits of study formed in some schools. There are schools without system, without any standard of accurate scholarship, and without any enthusiasm; for a genuine enthusiasm of study is impossible under any false system of instruction.

The student labors, but it is as a man might labor piling stones together to form a wall without any reference to the nature of the work in hand, stones of all sorts going alike into foundation and top. Not only is much of the labor in such a school lost, but the habits there formed cling to the student; and it is only in rare cases that they are ever entirely corrected. Those who receive students from such preparatory schools sympathize with the old Greek musician, who charged double price to all students who had ever taken lessons before coming to him—one-half for correcting bad habits.

Much loss comes from the bungling recitations of those who might be trained to accuracy. It is too often the case that the student is allowed to stumble through the recitation, showing only here and there any proper understanding of the subject, so that he gains nothing in clearness of thought, accuracy of information. or precision in language. A little more careful labor on the part of the student, a little more pressure in the right direction, on the part of the instructor, would render the work of both of double worth.

TIME WASTED ON UNIMPORTANT MATTERS.

(2) The second point I make is the teaching of *unimportant things.* In connection with some studies are found many things that either have no essential connection with them at all, a mere temporary connection, or one that is worthy the attention of professionals alone. It makes one shudder to think of the trash which scholars have been cempelled to learn in connection with the simple studies of grammar, geography, and arithmetic, to say nothing of the waste of labor in connection with classical studies and the higher mathematics. Many grammars insist upon distinctions and definitions which confuse rather than enlighten the beginner. Perhaps no teachers are left who compel their students to commit long lists of prepositions and adverbs, so that they may know them to be such in parsing; but other things as absurd are required, not in common schools alone, but in colleges.

Poor text-books come in here for their

share of blame. Small text-books, containing only the essentials of the subjects treated of, only those parts that have life in them, that cannot be eliminated without leaving the subject imperfect, are rare. It takes a brave man, and one merciless towards himself, to make a small, simple, but thorough text-book. Such books we must have, if we use text-books at all. If one doubts the propriety of thus cutting down text-books, let him take his best scholar after completing an ordinary book and ask him to write out all he knows on the subject. The book he makes will be small; and, in general, the larger the text-book he has used, the smaller will be the book which represents his own knowledge of the subject. If this Institute of Instruction would appoint a committee of five to select the best text-books on all the subjects taught in our schools, have this committee solemnly bound not to add a single line, but let each one be encouraged to strike out every rule, list, and problem that he thinks could be spared, my belief is that every author so treated would find his text-book vastly improved. He would probably think at first that the book was ruined, as students are apt to think their essays are ruined when the professor draws his pen through what they consider their finest sentences.

WANT OF THOROUGHNESS A PROLIFIC SOURCE OF WASTE.

(3) In my opposition to the too common method of loading down a subject with what is unimportant, do not understand me to recommend that we should teach but a little of the subject. I wish to throw aside all useless weights, that we may run the better; all non-essentials, that we may make thorough work with the essentials. One of the most prolific sources of waste in the work of education is that we content ourselves with a mere smattering of things that are of no use at all, unless they are learned thoroughly. Those things which we have neither the time nor talents to learn thoroughly should, as a general rule, be left untouched. There are exceptions to this rule, I am aware. How much time is wasted on French by those who never learn to speak or even read the language; on musical instruments by those who never can, or certainly never do, get beyond the point where all their performances are hard labor to themselves and torture to listeners. In languages and higher mathematics there are many things that some minds simply grasp for a moment, if at all, and they are gone, and so completely gone that they are of no use, directly or indirectly. Some claim here that, although the thing is forgotten at once, we have the benefit of the mental exercise in acquiring it, and this is worth all the labor. There is certainly good in mental exercise. The question is, Can it not be obtained on more advantageous terms than by learning a little of difficult studies to be forgotten?

WASTE FROM MISAPPREHENSION OF THE REAL PURPOSE OF STUDY.

(4) And this brings me to the next statement, that there is waste of labor in making the studies too hard. There is somehow a notion, ingrained in many of us, that it is good for us and the little ones to be afflicted; and so it is, But it is not good for us to afflict ourselves, or the children committed to us, except as a rare case of discipline. The whole structure of the world brings all the affliction we need, if we rightly improve it; and the road of learning, which old authority declared to be no royal road, is hard enough to tax all the powers of every student to their full extent, even when his teacher is at hand to direct in every place of doubt and to lend his aid where the way is hard and the feet are weary. It was an old notion that children must be toughened by exposure to cold and wet and be made healthy and energetic by calling them out of bed for hard labor when they ought to have been asleep. Children lived through such hardships, it is true—some of them did; and for a time those who had strength to live seemed to improve in health under the hard usage. But short lives, rheumatism, and some broken constitutions in middle life were the general products of such a hardening process.

A like notion has too often prevailed in

regard to intellectual training. The charm of "thoroughness" and "independent work," both excellent—indispensable in their places—induces many ambitious teachers to make drudges of their students, till all ambition and enthusiasm are utterly gone from them. By giving such students work only apportioned to their strength, keeping them for a time from all contact with the knotty points, or lending them a helping hand by showing the method of untying such knots, they might have gone on with courage till they could grapple successfully and joyfully with the hardest problems of any science. Many a teacher has seen such discouraged, disheartened boys, who utterly loathed all study, simply because it had always been demanded of them in a kind beyond the mastery of their unaided strength. And some of us have seen learned and faithful teachers who tormented themselves and disheartened their students, because these teachers could not understand the difference between thoroughness and indiscriminate cramming with non-essentials.

STUDY MERELY FOR DISCIPLINE A WASTE.

It seems to be the aim of some text-book-makers, and some teachers too, to make every study as difficult as possible, *for the sake of the discipline.* No doctrine is more fallacious. Get your discipline by doing a greater amount of work and doing it in a better style. What sensible man would turn aside to ride over quagmires and stone heaps for the sake of more exercise for himself or horse? An oak tree might be felled with a stone hatchet, and would get a deal of exercise in doing the job; but the same time and strength with a good steel ax would give as much exercise and leave something to show for the labor. Leave stone hatchets to savages; let civilized men use the sharpest steel axes they can find. They will thus do the most work and do it in the best manner. This principle of dealing with essentials mainly should prevail in all the work of education. We have too much to do to spend time fooling over complicated arithmetical puzzles which abound in some books—questions which no one should undertake to solve till well versed in algebra and geometry. At the proper stage of education, such puzzles, which are a discouragement to the young scholar because he thinks them essential to the subject, will be solved in the natural progress of his work. They are an annoyance and discouragement simply because they are introduced before their time, before the study of the principles on which their solution depends.

MENTAL DEVELOPMENT GRADUAL AND RETARDED BY PREMATURE FORCING.

In this connection I ought to speak, not only of the attempts to teach the child before he is prepared for the subject by previous study conditional for it, but also of that forcing-system by which things are taught, or the attempt is made to teach them, before the pupil's mind is mature enough to grapple with them. I speak here of the natural maturity of mind through age. In the first place, there is a great difference in children as to the age at which they can profitably engage in the same studies. There is a difference in children belonging to different families, as to the time of the development of their mental powers as a whole and also as to the order of their development. This is plain enough to those who have compared successive classes from year to year and have studied the history of families. Parents ought to understand this, but the majority of them do not. Teachers should study the mental condition of their pupils as carefully, to say the least, as they do the subjects they are to teach. The successful husbandman knows when the ground is ready for the seed, that germination may be sure and the plant become a vigorous grower. The inexperienced farmer or gardener, ambitious for an early crop, puts his seed, at the earliest moment, into the soil, only to find the seed wasted or his plants weakly in growth and failing in quantity and quality of fruit. Some whole schools are samples of this forcing-system. Parents and teachers both join in the work, and rejoice together over the precocious scholars who learn by rote and explain beautifully without ever

comprehending what they explain. Such unfortunate prodigies of learning lose by this cramming system all the pleasure and healthful stimulus to vigorous growth that come to the one who, with powers fitted for the work, incorporates the studies of each day into his intellectual life, because he is able to comprehend them fully without weariness to mind or overdraft upon the body. The growth of every day is to the latter healthful; and thus it happens that so many who commence study late in life soon outstrip those who have been delving for years.

(To be continued.)

THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

BY EMILE DE LAVELEYE, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LIEGE, BELGIUM.

Russia during the last twenty years has shown how a great state may rise from a defeat. Like Prussia, after the battle of Jena, it has profited from a bitter lesson. While the country was recovering from the shock of defeat the time was not spent in sluggishness and fruitless experiments; it has, on the contrary, been a period of radical reform and complete reorganization. In 1854 Russia had really not been conquered, as, after two years consumed in gigantic exertions, the allies had only succeeded in taking one single city, situated on the confines of the empire. The frontiers had scarcely been touched, for the enemy never thought of leading his armies into the heart of the country. The country nevertheless was exhausted, and made peace because it had not the strength to continue the war any longer. The Russian government was fully aware of the causes of its weakness. These causes were three in number; first, the lack of rapid means of communication; secondly, the insufficient development of the productive powers of the country; and, thirdly, the want of enlightenment among the masses of the people. If in 1853 Russia had had railways, the allies would never have ventured into the Crimea, whence they would soon have been driven back into the sea; and if, on the other hand, the natural wealth of Russia had been developed by a free and enlightened people, she could for a long time have defied all the assaults of France and England. To remove these various causes of weakness has been the object which Russia has pursued with indefatigable perseverance and in an intelligent manner.

The beginning was made by tracing a net-work of railroads, which extends every year in all directions. Next, the serfs were emancipated, a reform of far-reaching consequences, which must change the whole economical situation of the empire, since it has awakened in the population that desire for progress which always accompanies freedom. Recently military service has been made compulsory for all, not even excepting the families of nobles. For some years the government has been earnestly engaged in the enormous work of extending education to all classes of society, both in the rural districts and in the towns and cities. This, in my opinion, is the most important matter, for it is the application of scientific knowledge which makes labor productive. If for the same amount of exertion men reap five or ten times more to-day than in former times, it is because, thanks to science, the domesticated natural powers work themselves and produce everything needed for satisfying our wants. The United States is certainly the country where relatively the greatest amount of wealth is produced, and there more than anywhere else are all new discoveries applied to labor. Open as many schools in Russia as in America, and the power of that immense empire will surpass that of any other country in the world. It must be acknowledged that in this respect everything had to be done, even to laying the very foundation on which to erect the building. In order to understand this we must cast a glance at the past.

The first attempts to educate the people date from the reign of Peter the Great. In Holland, where even at that time there were many and good schools, the imperial reformer saw the marvelous results produced by them.

In 1714 he established "compulsory schools of arithmetic" for the higher classes.

In 1715 and 1719 stricter regulations were published, and attendance at school was made compulsory for all except the nobility. These excellent measures, far from meeting with favor, were violently opposed. The city councils of several cities sent petitions demanding the suppression of these schools as being dangerous institutions.

In 1744, it was ascertained that not a single pupil from the middle class attended these schools, and, after special schools had been founded for the clergy and the nobility, they were completely deserted.

In 1775, Catharine II, influenced by the philosophical ideas of the eighteenth century, ordered the establishment of schools in towns and villages. She wished that the school fee should be as small as possible, in order not to deter the poorer classes from sending their children to school; but this order unfortunately remained a dead letter, for everything was wanting, teachers, school-houses, books, money. Since that time several other efforts were made, but invariably without any result. Considerable sums would have been required to make a beginning, and the government contented itself with passing laws.

In 1782, a committee, with M. Zavadovsky as chairman, proposed to establish two kinds of schools, one with a four-years course for the higher classes, and another with a two-years course for the common people.

In 1786 certificates of ability were required of all persons—at least in the cities—who opened a school.

In 1803 the higher schools were changed to gymnasia, organized on the same plan as the institutions of that name in Germany.

In the common schools established by Catherine II, the "book of the duties of every man and citizen" had been adopted as the basis of instruction; this was replaced by a reader containing pieces on agriculture, hygiene, and natural philosophy. The utilitarian age succeeded the philosophic age.

In 1804 a new effort was made to establish schools on the estates of the Emperor and the nobility; but, owing to want of money, nothing serious was done.

Finally the clergy felt touched in their honor, and decided to show what the zeal and devotion of the servants of religion may accomplish. In 1806 it was stated that in the district of Novgorod there were one hundred and six schools kept by officiating ministers. The report of Prince Gagarin, who mentions this fact, adds that, "unfortunately, two years later they had all disappeared."

It will readily be understood that in a country where slavery exists, where, consequently, individual efforts are necessarily feeble and confined to private interests, the direct and effective intervention of the government is indispensable. Some steps in this direction were taken in 1828, and in 1835 a law placed all the existing schools under the supervision of the superintendents of the school-districts, which were generally of an enormous extent. Several district-schools were founded by the government to serve as models, but the parochial schools increased very slowly.

After serfdom had been abolished, the Emperor Alexander II saw that the indispensable consequence of this great reform must be a thorough reorganization of public instruction. In 1861 a committee was appointed to draw up the plan of a law.

In 1862 M. Taneef submitted to the Emperor a "General plan for the organization of popular education," which contained some very excellent points. The result was the General Regulations of 1864, which are still in force.

Neither France nor England has so fully understood the problem before her. The difficulties which a complete reorganization of popular education meets in Russia are enormous. They are principally caused by the manner in which the inhabitants live, scattered over a large extent of country, and by their extreme poverty.

The following are the expenses of a school according to the report:

	City.	Country.
	Roubles.	*Roubles.*
Teacher's salary	250 — $200	150 — $120
Remuneration of religious instructor	80 — 64	50 — 40
Books and apparatus	70 — 56	50 — 40
Total	400 — 320	250 — 200

To support a school in the country districts costs, therefore, $200, and to this sum must be added fuel and lodging, which makes the total expense even somewhat higher. In order to cover this annual expense, it is estimated that eight hundred persons, or two hundred families, must, on an average, contribute $1 per family, or 25 cents per head. Even in comparison with richer countries than Russia, this seems much. It is true that, in the United States, in the Protestant cantons of Switzerland, and in Denmark, the average expense per head is higher, but in France it is only 39 cents per head, in Norway 27½ cents, in Sweden 30¾ cents, in Spain and Greece 25 cents, in Italy 13¾ cents, and in Portugal 8 cents.

In Russia 800 persons live on an average scattered over eight hamlets, covering about 20 square "versts." The density of population is so small that there are only 13.6 inhabitants to one square kilometer, (2⅝ square kilometers to 1 square mile,) instead of 69, as in France. Under these circumstances only the children from the center hamlet and those living nearest to it could attend school regularly, especially during the winter months. The remainder of the inhabitants would pay their dues without having any benefit, which would necessarily foster discontent. As Prince Gagarin says, "It has, therefore, not been possible to make education in Russia compulsory, as in Germany, nor even to enforce the establishment of a school in each community."

It is doubtless impossible at present to introduce into Russia the educational systems of the western countries. It is not there that the models of imitation are to be looked for. The geographical and social conditions differ too much, but there is a country in Europe where the same difficulties are met with as in Russia, and where, nevertheless, education is as generally diffused as in Switzerland, Germany, and Denmark, and that country is Norway. In Norway the population is still more scattered than in Russia, for there are only 4.7 inhabitants to the square kilometer. The ground moreover is very much broken by deep valleys and high plateaus; the climate is exceedingly severe, and deep snow is very frequent; the hamlets are small, sometimes only composed of two or three farms lost in the wilderness. Nevertheless all Norwegians, and even many of the Lapps, know at least how to read and write, and most of the farmers have an excellent education. How have these extraordinary results been obtained? By means of the itinerant school, the *flyttante skola*. A schoolmaster travels through each of these districts, staying some time in each hamlet. He is received in one of the arms, where he is boarded and lodged, and gathers around him the children of the immediate neighborhood. As they are never very numerous, he can give his whole attention to each individual, and thus they make rapid progress in a short time. When the teacher is gone, the mother, who of course can read, repeats the lessons with her children, and thus prepares them to receive a new installment of instruction on the teacher's return. Popular education in Norway and the north of Sweden is spread almost exclusively by itinerant teachers. In 1840 there were in Norway 7,133 itinerant schools and only 222 permanent schools. Since the country has grown richer and the farmers have made greater sacrifices for the cause of education, this proportion has been somewhat modified. According to the educational census, there were in 1863 3,560 itinerant schools and 2,757 permanent schools, and in 1866 3,999 permanent schools and only 2,345 itinerant schools.

Russia ought to follow the example of Norway, and make a commencement with the itinerant school. The peddler plays already an important part in the rural life of Russia. He brings the products of distant industry and news from the out-

side world, thus representing commerce and the press. The itinerant teacher would be the peddler of civilization. Education would thus be brought to every house, and the teacher's influence on the parents and the hamlets where they dwell could not fail to be a happy one. There should be no hesitation to ask the clergy to assist in this work, for, being thoroughly national, it would not become as in Roman Catholic countries, the tool of ultramontane politicians. It would be well to adopt the ingenious idea recently put in practice in England, of making the subsidies granted proportionate to the result obtained. It is the principle of responsibility and of piecework introduced into the educational field. According to Article 19 of the new code of 1871, the director of a school which is open at least 400 times during the year—either forenoon or afternoon—can claim six shillings for every child which attends school regularly all the year round, and, besides this, for every child examined at the annual examination by the school inspectors, 4 shillings if satisfactory in reading, 4 shillings if in writing, and 4 shillings if in arithmetic; making a total of 12 shillings.

Let this principle be introduced in Russia; let 1 or 2 roubles be given to the teacher or the priest for every child that can read and write, and the results will be surprising. But if progress is to be made, the government must above every thing grant a liberal appropriation. The Emperor Alexander was fully convinced of the urgent necessity of energetic action, but to do anything at all much money was required. In a recent decree (December 25, 1873) addressed to Count Dmitri Tolstoi, the minister of public instruction, the Emperor, after giving a rapid sketch of the development of education during the last few years, insists in the strongest terms on the urgency of upholding, by constant vigilance, the principles of faith, morality, and public duty in the numerous schools organized with a view to meet the demands of the age. The Emperor says: "That which, according to my view, ought to contribute towards the sound education of the younger generations, should never become an instrument of demoralization, a danger of which some symptoms are already showing themselves. To keep up popular education in the spirit of religion and morality is a task which belongs not only to the clergy, but to all enlightened men, especially the Russian nobility, which has been called to be the guardian of the public schools, by guarding them against dangerous and corrupting influences. To this effect, special rights have been conferred on the leaders of the nobility in their capacity of curators of the primary schools in their districts, and the minister of public instruction, in concert with the minister of the interior, is invited to come to an understanding with them, so as to enjoy their active co-operation in this great and useful work."—*Circular of Information, from the Bureau of Education, No.* 3, 1875.

EMBRYO MEN.

BY ANNIE M. BARNWELL.

Several excellent articles have appeared lately in the pages of *Home and School* on the rights and privileges of maidens, who have passed the Rubicon of their first teen, but who have not yet reached the dignity of womanhood. There has been much said too about their education, and many pretty compliments have been paid to their sweet, fresh youth. They have been earnestly told of the influence for good or evil which they will surely exert in the future, and carefully advised how to prepare themselves for the high and noble sphere which they may fill, if they are minded to do so.

Meanwhile their brothers, of the same age, have been almost entirely neglected. Now and then the question of Solomon's rod versus moral suasion has been agitated, and the co-education of the sexes is quite a hackneyed subject; but of boys, as boys, there has been little said. Perhaps my readers will exclaim, "So much the better!" and marvel why I should take for my theme what the majority consider such uninteresting creatures as

half-grown boys. But I have always felt a great deal of liking, respect, and cordial sympathy for that class of society to which has been given the name of "hobble-de-hoys."

It is an often quoted saying that boys should be buried at ten and dug up at seventeen; and as this course of treatment is not exactly practicable, society both at home and abroad snubs and derides and hustles them through the years which lie between pettable childhood and independent manhood. What poet has ever described them as

> "Standing with reluctant feet,
> Where the brook and river meet,"

or assigned them a place in any "rose-bud garden of boys?" What writer has ever said of them, "We know how full the world is of briers against which it is not in our power effectually to shield them; let us give them at least love and hope and sympathy; let us give them, if possible, anything rather than harsh censure, that they may carry with them through life the cordial memory of a joyous dawn." Write poetry on boys! Why, the very idea would be scouted as ridiculous. Mr. Harney calls girls "pots of mignonette" and "sunny apricots" and "half-blown rose-buds," "modest wee daisies," while a thousand similar pet names have been lavished upon them; but who thinks of calling boys "brave young lions," "erect, proud young oaks," or indeed by any flattering term whatever? They are rude boys, rough boys, noisy boys, horrid boys, tiresome boys; but it is not often that a pleasant adjective falls to their share. Poor fellows! They have hardly a fair showing.

Let us see them first at home. They are beginning to hold opinions of their own on all subjects, and are not willing to adopt those of their seniors unless they are convinced of their justice. Generally speaking, these opinions are crude, unreasonable, often silly; but we forget that the boy does not see them in this light. He announces them in a self-satisfied, important manner that to older people is both ridiculous and provoking, and at once incites them to put him down. Now is the boy to be blamed for this? He wants to be a man, and naturally copies the manner of the men he admires most and with whom he is oftenest in company. Boys generally view ladies as decidedly their inferiors intellectually, so these opinions are most frequently addressed to their fathers or grown-up brothers. They instantly snub him contemptuously; call him a jackass, a fool, or, more insulting still, a little goose, and do not see that his manner is aped from their own. Of course our boy gets angry, and retorts with what he intends for sarcasm, but which they pronounce impertinence. Forthwith he is ordered to hold his tongue. His sense of justice and his budding manliness are outraged by this mode of closing the argument, and he makes another effort at sarcasm; but being still too much of a child to have put off fear or got out of the reach of personal chastisement, he mutters his wit sulkily. He is at once ignominiously driven from the room or from the table, which is a boy's favorite place for such little episodes, and pronounced while he is yet within ear-shot "a rude, conceited, sulky little goose."

Our boy's manners and opinions are not improved by this course of treatment. His reasoning powers are not matured, but they have begun to work, and they at once tell him that if his opinion was not unanswerably right he would not have been so promptly put to silence. Far from his conceit being lessened, it is increased, and he considers himself victorious in the little skirmish, and is rendered more assured and pert when next he ventures to the attack. These little affrays are constantly occurring, and the boy occupies a position of fixed defiance toward the masculine adults of his own family circle. With the feminine he is on little better terms. The independence of his budding manhood makes him feel a false sense of shame in yielding obedience to a woman, and he is not old enough to have acquired the deferential courtesy which marks the bearing of every true gentleman toward all ladies, more especially those of his own household. Un-

less the mother and elder sisters of a half-grown boy are wise enough to exercise only so much authority as is absolutely necessary, and that rather by affectionate and well-timed influence than arbitrary commands, he will resist them at first by argument and a sulky and unwilling obedience which ere long will ripen into open rebellion.

Another fault common to half-grown boys is a habit of boasting so exaggerated as often to receive, if it does not merit, the name of lying. This charge is singularly unjust. A boy will listen admiringly to a party of gentlemen conversing of their own exploits, many of which, they state, "happened when I was a mere boy." He hears them tell of enormous weights lifted, of hair-breadth escapes in which the narrator behaved with the utmost coolness and bravery, of wonderful shots, marvelous feats of horsemanship, terrible and always victorious fights, and proud successes in many a contest for school and college prizes. He drinks in all these stories eagerly, and is filled with a longing which the self-confidence of youth matures into a determination that he too will be a hero. He wins some trifling honor at school, and his imagination magnifies it into a triumphant success; makes a fair shot or jumps a wide ditch, and at once the length of the shot or the width of the ditch is in his eyes trebled, has a sharp tussle with a schoolmate, and believes his small advantage a mighty victory. His own acts, his own feelings are viewed through the doubly magnifying glasses of youth and self-love; and when he describes them in the exaggerated language of his years he believes himself to be speaking the truth, and is blinded to the absurdity of his statements. It is unjust and cruel to term this inaccuracy falsehood. I have known boys, aye, and men too, who would scorn to tell a deliberate untruth and yet indulge freely in this habit of boasting. A most pernicious habit it is, and one that should be kindly and firmly but also wisely corrected. To treat his entire story with utter contempt as a deliberate falsehood is the least likely way of curing a boy of this habit. He knows there is some truth in his statement, and believes there is still more, and his indignation at the injustice with which he is treated effectually prevents reformation. Boys are keen-sighted too, and are apt to argue thus: "Why, you who pronounce my story a lie told a more wonderful one of yourself. Does your readiness to disbelieve me arise from the consciousness that your own statement was false, or at least fearfully exaggerated?" Thus suspicion and distrust of those he regarded as oracles are planted in his heart, and render him more rebellious and opinionated.

Treat a boy like a gentleman and in nine cases out of ten you will make him one. His roughness and boisterousness are not deliberate breaches of the rules of politeness, but arise from an overflow of animal spirits or very often from awkwardness. To scold a boy for making a noise and speak to him as sharply as if he had been guilty of some real offense gives his mirth a sudden and painful check or increases his awkwardness; in either case provoking him to anger or sullenness. Perhaps you do speak gently without effect. Well, do not at once ascribe this to intentional disobedience and disrespect, but rather to inattention or thoughtlessness. Call the boy to you and make him listen while you tell him that the noise is disagreeable, and, if possible, suggest some quiet amusement and make an effort to interest him in it. Let him see that you expect courtesy from him as a matter of course and he will seldom refuse to yield it.

The conceit of half-grown boys is proverbial. They fancy that nothing is too hard for them to accomplish, and no question too deep for their intellects to measure. But are they more conceited and self-confident or only more frank than their seniors? The man has learned something of the wisdom of silence, but his smile of conscious superiority and the tone in which he hints rather than asserts his power mean exactly what the boy's boastful words candidly express. Give our boy a few more years and a little contact with the world and I promise

that he too will learn the art of boasting in silence.

In the world our boy fares no better than at home. His manhood is already dawning, and he aspires to pass from the ranks of merry, romping childhood and take his place among the men and women who have already learned the ways and language of society. He admires their ease of manner, their graceful small-talk, their pleasant little flirtations, and longs to imitate them; but he is painfully conscious of his own ignorance and deficiency. If this consciousness be joined with bashfulness, our boy will stand awkwardly poised on one foot in corners, or sit bolt upright and with crimson face on the tallest and least comfortable chair in the room. If compelled to dance, he tears the ladies' dresses, stumbles over the gentlemen's toes, and makes a thousand mistakes; and for all this he is laughed at, scolded, and pronounced an awkward little wretch.

If, on the other hand, our boy's nature is not bashful, he will watch the men around him and imitate them to the best of his ability. Should he be sharp enough to afford his elders amusement, they will encourage his attempts at being a man, applaud his saucy speeches, and treat him as an equal, until his head is completely turned. Then if he becomes pert and tiresome, he is snubbed unsparingly, and made ridiculous and even contemptible in the eyes of all around him.

Now what course is a boy to pursue? He is scolded for being childish and for being mannish, for awkwardness and for forwardness, for silliness and for presumption in forming and expressing opinions of his own. Children do not wish him among them because he is rough and arbitrary, and grown people certainly do not seek to make companionship with them pleasant to him. It is a lonely period in his life; for the early seed-time has passed away, and the rich harvest is still in the future. Wheat and tares have alike been sown, and they are growing close together. It remains yet to be proved which will gain the day, whether the fertile field will bear a rich and useful crop of grain or prove a waste of weeds, with here and there a stunted ear of wheat to show that the sower had lingered there, though the reaper must perforce pass it sadly by.

O parents, brothers and sisters, teachers and friends, all to whom the care and training of boys are committed, deal with them wisely, justly, firmly, but above all kindly. Remember that they are in a transition state, and that you are in a great measure responsible for their worth or uselessness as men. The rough, awkward exterior will ere long be polished into the courtly gentleman, if trained aright. The voice whose loud, unmusical tones annoy you now may some day hold you entranced from the forum, the senate chamber, or the pulpit. The crude opinions may ripen into wisdom and eloquence; the pertness change into sparkling wit; the boastfulness become that manly self-reliance which is the surest basis on which a noble character can be built.

Only give our boy time and sympathy and love, and he will repay you tenfold for all the patience and trouble he is costing you now. Pause, weary mother, when you are about to scold your careless boy for a torn jacket-sleeve, and remember that the arm within may one day prove to you a strong and tender support when your feet are tottering toward the grave. The loud, rough tones, the crude independence of thought and action which provoke you so constantly, O father, may comfort your dying hour with the promise that your boy will be a support to your helpless dear ones when you have passed into your rest, and the knowledge that he can and will keep that promise faithfully. Bear with them now, sisters and teachers and friends, looking onward to a day when they will be your pride and joy. Rough and unpromising as they seem now, yield them a little of the respect and consideration which is their due as the embryo men who will lead you in war, make laws for you in peace, and speak unto you from the pulpit the sacred words of eternal life.—*Home and School.*

EDUCATIONAL FALLACIES—II.

BY PROFESSOR MORAN.

That education must advance with the progress of science,—that mental culture, somehow, like agriculture, can be greatly facilitated by "improved methods," that in fine, science will yet discover some "royal road" —railroad it is to be—by which a man shall reach the summits of learning as rapidly and with as little exertion as he now crosses the chasm of Niagara or pierces through the Bergen hills.

The prevalence of this notion with its peculiar influence on modern education is easily explained. Science has so nearly annihilated those ancient foes to man—time and space; it has in all branches of manual industry so wonderfully abridged labor by the powerful and untiring muscles of machinery, that men are naturally impatient of the old, laborious, protracted method of self culture. When a journey that once occupied a weary month can now be performed with pleasure in a single day, when a farmer can ride about his fields with comfort on a contrivance half reaper and half chariot, and perform alone, as if by magic, the work of a dozen men, when a man on the Atlantic seaboard can talk, as it were, face to face with another across the continent on the Pacific, it is no wonder that we grow impatient of the old stage coach progress of the advancing ideas, no wonder that we mourn at the still undivided drudging of seven or ten years at school.

Thus it is that a fast age looks about for some telegraphic method of educating men. It packs a whole modern language into a 12 mo. pocket manual, and so arranges it in little, homœpathic sacharine doses that it may be swallowed with comfort in the space of six weeks, with no confinement of the patient to his room, and, it might be added, with no diminution of his ignorance. It skillfully arranges Science and Art and Elocution as three birds in a line on one twig to be "brought down" at a single throw of the youthful and impatient learner. It mutilates our noble-mother language, defacing with impious hand the evidences of her genealogy and her relationship, robbing her words of their history, their poetry and often of their very significance, and calling this sacrilege a gain because it has thus abridged chilhood of a few school days to pile a trifle higher the heaps of wealth. It would fain no longer seek to cultivate or honor the development of intellectual or spiritual powers, but rather the simple knowledge of things and the dexterity of hand that conduce to material advantage. Nay,—miracle of miracles! so jealous is science of any time spent in mere intellectual exercise that she recently boasted the possession of a contrivance by which a knowledge of "languages, music, arithmetic," &c., could be ground out with a crank. The "Patent Metabolical machine," with the aid of steam power, may yet be able to turn out linguists, musicians and mathematicians with a rapidity, correctness, ease and cheapness wonderful to contemplate, and only to be equalled by the facility with which the Hindoos grind out their prayers.

But out upon such unreason—out upon such nonsense, to oppose which ridicule seems the only proper weapon. There is still, thank heaven, no royal road to learning. Still the path is up rugged and thorny steps, still the footsteps of the traveler must be slow, and his course toilsome, and his courage must be tested and his energy and perseverance tried, and he must toil on through dark nights and through torrid and frigid days, and in years only can he see the miles gathering in his rear, and the sunshine brightening above his head. The prize is great and the toil and the time alone have made it so. If we would have any good thing intellectually or morally we must pay the price. That which can be bought for a trifle is but of trifling value.

The nature of man is the same to-day that it was a thousand years ago. He can make iron muscles do his work, but his iron muscles are subject to no new law of development. He can bridge the ocean with steamships and put a telegraphic bridle around the earth, but the

development of all his own faculties takes place in precisely the same manner and with precisely the same rapidity as in the days of Cicero. Fellow teachers, let us not forget this. Let us remember that as science gives us now better plows and hoes and rakes than our ancestors possessed, and thus renders the work of the husbandman easier than of old, but that nevertheless the seeds we put in the ground to-day follow the same law of germination, and the plants require the same time for maturity, so in the work of education science affords us with mechanical facilities, but changes no law of mental growth. The mind can only be disciplined by patient study as the muscles by patient exercise. No amusing system of "object instruction"—no "short methods"—no text books revised for the 99th time—nothing will make a scholar but patient perservering, personal effort. Let us then keep this great truth in view, act up to it ourselves, impress it upon our pupils. Let us be willing to examine all new spades and harrows for stirring the soil in which new ideas may be growing, but never forget, *nor forget to preach* the inexorable law of development that presides over all our efforts.

THE STUDY OF GERMAN.

German is now taught in the common schools of so many cities of the Union that, if fashion were the measure of true policy, there would be no disputing about the correctness of the plan. But many customs are common that are by no means proper; and among these the study of the German language in the common schools is one which, if not strictly improper, is at least of very questionable policy.

The same study pursued in high schools and academies, as a branch of scholarly acquirement, is beyond the suggestion of criticism; but taught to children in the public schools, it defeats the very ends intended to be subserved. In the first place, it is not taught, but trifled with. The effort to grade it in with the English branches is always futile, on account of the mixture of nationalities in the schools and the impossibility of having a child's knowledge of German correspond to his advancement in the English branches.

In many instances it is introduced for political purposes, and the teachers employed are the proteges of office-holders whose only recommendation is the vote at their backs which gives them official existence. The study itself is a failure everywhere, even in the private schools where nothing else is attempted to be taught. The children of such schools learn neither English nor German, but a vicious mixture of both—pigeon English, worse than Chinese, worse than Choctaw.

This is an American, English-speaking country, and the children whose instinct always tells them the true fitness of things will not speak any language but English among themselves, even though school-boards conspire to the contrary. Reason and moralize as you may, to children German is Dutch and nothing but Dutch, and the more you harass them with it, the more Dutchy and disagreeable it becomes. English children have not the facilities to learn it, and *German children are ashamed to know it.*

Were children preserved from this Germanic persecution until they reached the high-school grade, when they might appreciate the value of German literature and the use of the study as a means of mental discipline and a source of information much more good would be accomplished, much more culture would accrue, than is now done by the absurd attempt to force a jumble of ill-pronounced, ungrammatical German provincialisms into the heads of rebellious young Americans.

Every attempt to keep German in as a branch of common-school education has exhibited the cunning of Bismarck combined with the physical force of the Prussian army. When the teachers of the branch are proved incapable of maintaining proper order, and securing due respect, lo! the poor English teachers must do both for them, or they run the risk of losing their official heads.

All the arguments in favor of this

study from a business point of view are clearly fallacious; for there are so many Germans who can speak English well more than there are Americans who can speak German well that competition with the foreigners in the labor market is out of the question. The arguments in its favor on the score of culture are just as false; for culture demands the grammatical study of a language, whereas German as taught in the common-schools is not presented in a purely grammatical or a purely conversational manner, but in a mongrel style, a mixture of both, which has just enough of both to have nothing of either.

Next to the demand of a religious organization to have dogmatism taught in the schools at public expense, comes the demand of a foreign element to have their language so taught, in its absurdity. Indeed the object is sectarian at bottom. An exiled people feel that they can preserve their religion only as long as they preserve their language.

In what city is the study of German successful in the public schools? In what city does a child learn more of German in eight years of his common-school life than he could learn in four days' attendance at a high-school under a competent teacher? In what city was German introduced into the public schools for any but political reasons?

There is no speculative philosophy in these remarks. They are the result of ten years' observation of the effort to make German successful in the grammar and primary schools of the United States. The result is in every case a waste of time and money, and a hatred engendered against a study which, in a higher grade, might be both pleasant and profitable.—*Nat. Teachers' Monthly.*

THREE MAXIMS OF STUDY.—First, mental labor never hurts anybody unless taken in great excess; second, those who cannot spare time for physical exercise will soon have to spare it for illness; third, morning work is generally better than night work.—*Lord Derby.*

DEFICIENCIES IN SCHOOL WORK.

There is a deficiency in the *formation and direction of character.* This is one of the most important and radical deficiencies in the entire system. Upon its removal, and the substitution of its opposite, depend to a very great extent the efficacy and value of all education worthy of the name. Dr. Thomas Arnold, the great master of the famous Rugby School in England, placed the formation and development of character, at the very foundation of his work; and relied upon it as the touch-stone of his success, as a teacher. To imbue the boys under his care, at the earliest possible period, with a feeling of self-respect—a proper appreciation of their nature, powers, faculties, duties and destination—a corresponding respect for the equal rights and claims of others, sustaining various relations towards themselves—a nice and refined sense of honor—of the inviolable sanctity of truth, duty, conscience, moral and religious obligation—a clear perception of what was required of them in the cultivation of their minds, with a view to future usefulness, honor and distinction—an abhorrence of vice and vicious indulgences of every description as unworthy of their higher natures, and debasing and demoralizing in all their influences—and a fixed and firm resolve, so to demean themselves as acolytes of science and knowledge, and the great principles of virtue and humanity so as to fit them for worthy communion with the noblest and highest society; these were the aims of his entire course of instruction, and only as he was successful in their accomplishment did he seem to himself to have fulfilled his mission. How much of all this do we see in the great mass of our public and private institutions of learning? And yet is it not evident, that in its absence or neglect, a powerful lever for the true education and intellectual, moral, social and religious advancement of the coming generations, has been irretrievably lost? Should not the examples of Principal Page and Thomas Arnold of Rugby, in these respects—vindicated as they were

by the results of their teaching—be more generally followed by teachers of every grade?

Another deficiency, in our methods of teaching, is their *want of thoroughness.* The crowded state of most of our city schools, seems almost to necessitate superficial instruction; especially when combined, as it too frequently is, with impossible requisitions for the simultaneous mastery of many independent and difficult branches of study. These things ought not so to be, "whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well." From the lowest classes of the primary schools, up to the highest form of the college or university, every branch of study should be *thoroughly* taught, or not attempted to be taught at all.

> "A little learning is a dangerous thing,
> Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring."

The youngest child should be thoroughly instructed in the combination of letters of his alphabet into words and sentences, with the meaning of each, so far as practicable; so with the denotation of numerals and the combination of figures: so with the meaning of every sentence of every text book placed in his hands; so with the orthography, etymology, syntax and prosody of the English or other language, forming a part of his course; so with all the higher branches to which he ascends. The result of all this would be that whatever was lost in time would be gained in power; and the wretched anomaly which now so often confronts us in the college or university graduate of the combination of a superficial smattering of many useless and unavailable branches of study, with an almost total absence of sound, well-digested practical, scientific ability, would forever disappear from among us.

Still another deficiency, requiring to be noted in this connection is the *overtasking* of the faculties and powers of more advanced pupils of our public schools, to the utter defeat of the object had in view, and the imminent risk of disease, debility, vital prostration, and not unfrequently of premature death. "This is a grievous error; and grievously has it been answered," in many of our city schools throughout the Union. It admits of no justification or palliation, and should be "reformed altogether."

The practice of many, if not most of our public schools, in large cities of assigning difficult lessons to be studied *out of school hours*, and apart from the regular teacher, is to say the least, highly questionable. Aside from devolving the duty of the teachers, upon the parents or families of the pupils—aside from the extreme probability that the "cramming" of some casual visitor, or other inmate of the family, will be "parroted" upon the teacher, as the result of individual effort; the requisition of an additional hour, or two hours' isolated study, after six hours spent in the school-room—study, too, perhaps involving some difficult and complicated problem, undertaken and prosecuted at a period when the entire mental and physical system requires relaxation and rst, and when any unusual excitement of the brain is, or may be, attended with the most disastrous consequences—is manifestly an inexcusable infringement of the laws of health, and wholly at variance with the dictates of an intelligent and enlightened system of education.

With one more specification, I will for the present close my unwelcome catalogue of deficiencies in our prevailing systems of instruction. They are not sufficiently fertile in *practical teaching;* in teaching looking forward to results in the every day transactions of the world around us. How many of our pupils leave the elementary or higher schools and institutions of learning, prepared to enter, properly equipped, the marts of trade and commerce, the shops of the manufacturer or machinest, the counting-house of the merchant, or the office of the man of business and bustling enterprise! How many of our graduates can bring their accumulated stores of learning to bear upon the every day practical products, demands and requirements of the community which surrounds them on every hand? Should there not, in every public school, be special facilities afforded for the practical education of every pupil,

for the special profession, business or calling, which he has decided to pursue, or for a general course of technology?—S. S. RANDALL, *late Supt. of Pub. Schools in the city of New York.*

EDUCATION AND SECTARIANISM.

The State may not support sectarian schools. That schools established by any denomination for denominational purposes are not "common" or public schools in the legal sense, has been affirmed by the courts. The school law does not authorize sectarian instruction in any school supported by taxation. The idea of supporting sectarian schools by public money is obnoxious to the settled convictions of the people. If the state support parochial schools for one sect, it must for all, Baptists, Methodists, Episcopalians, Roman Catholics, Liberals, and all the rest. The mere statement of such a plan involves its refutation. The assaults now made upon our common schools need give no alarm to their friends, if they are only just and wise, for fair play and good sense, if they do not disarm opposition, will destroy its power. Narrowness and bigotry, under the guise of devotion to the Bible reading, may do vast mischief. Let us treat dissentients as we would wish to be treated if they were in the majority. To show what has been our policy, I reproduce certain sentiments given in one of my early reports.

Recent discussions and opposition have deepened and developed the devotion of the masses to our common schools. On no other question do they so thoroughly fraternize without reference to distinctions of race, religion or politics. The Irish and Germans evince commendable interest in our schools. Said a parent to me: "I attended church schools without learning enough to tell O from a cart wheel. I mean to give my children an education, for I have sadly felt the need of it." With the fathers of New England the necessity of common schools was a postulate. Time has only strengthened this conviction, till our schools have now become so rooted in the affections of the American people, as both the source and safeguard of liberty and the secret of their thrift and prosperity, that devotion to them is held essential to loyalty to our institutions.

Our school system should be unsectarian. Its *primary* purpose is intellectual training. In its practical workings it has always been essentially secular, while its moral influence has been great and good. The bible is generally read without objection in our schools. Much as I value its influence and desire its continued use, I oppose coercion and advocate full religious freedom and equality. Wherever there is opposition to this time-honored usage, I would permit the largest liberty of dissent, and cheerfully allow parents to decide whether children shall read or not read, and be present or absent when the bible is read. Roman Catholic children may read from the Douay version, and the Jews from the Old Testament; or still better, the teacher may read a brief selection, or if it is preferred, let the Bible reading occur at the close of the session, after the objectors have retired. Compulsory reading will defeat its own aim, and induce resistance and reaction.

Sectarian schools as a system for the masses have uniformly failed alike in this country, England, France, Spain, and Italy. Twenty-nine years ago the Presbyterian Church attempted to organize and support denominational schools throughout its bounds. The Old School General Assembly then proclaimed "its firm conviction that the interests of the church demanded that immediate efforts be made by *every congregation* to establish within its bounds one or more primary schools," and directed that "circulars be sent in the name of the General Assembly to all Presbyteries and Sessions." Dr. Cortland Van Rensselaer was prominent and very earnest in the advocacy of this measure. The experiment utterly failed. The sects were too numerous and unequal to permit denominational schools. The two systems, common and sectarian schools, cannot co-exist.

The leading difficulty in organizing the

new system of public schools in England came from the assumption that they must be sectarian. Their schools had hitherto been ecclesiastical establishments, and hence their inefficiency. Not one-half the parishes of England and Wales were provided with schools. The criminal statistics of England show that not one-twentieth of their prisoners can read.

Our schools may be unsectarian and yet not irreligious. It is poor logic which contends that unless they are positively religious, they must be infidel or atheistic. Even if the Bible were not read at all, it does not follow that our schools would be godless. Our teachers are largely religious persons. By example as well as precept they are seeking to implant the divine law of love in the hearts of their pupils, that the fruits of honor, honesty, truth, and right may appear in their lives. The habits of order, punctuality, self-control, and obedience here formed are favorable to virtue.—*Report of B. G. Northrop, Secretary Board of Education, Conn.*, 1875.

To PUT the case briefly, no people ever possessed two national languages. Therefore, either English or German has got to prevail in this country. If the latter can supplant the former, well and good, but it should not ask for or receive government aid in accomplishing that task. It is safe to assume, that should German ever be the prevailing speech of a majority of our citizens, the decaying English would not be left long in the schools.—*Indianapolis Sentinel.*

KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION.

In Caroline Weseneder's Musical Kindergarten, though years may pass before a dull musical ear and tone shall learn perfect tune-time and rhythm, yet surely they *will be learned through appropriate play*; while an original talent for music is at once developed.

Who does not know how the emotions are waked up, as well as moderated by music? English and American educators say, "Suppress the emotions." We continentals reply, "No! develop and regulate them." Music is a great means for this. Caroline Wesender used for the purpose:

1. *Exercises of the memory*, in repeating the words of little poems, by which the children prepare the movement plays which the poem suggests. The fancy of the child, full of the desire for the coming results, eagerly assists the memory. This is not rote-learning, but *learning by heart.*

2. *Marching and finger exercises.* Exercising the fingers, hands, and wrists, are of the greatest practical importance. Nothing marks noble freedom more than the free use of the wrists, hands and fingers.

The uneducated in body and mind, use the whole arm with awkward elbow, while the educated slightly move the hand from the wrists. Music, accompanying finger exercises, gives grace, precision and force to them, which stands the child in good stead afterwards for almost any performance. Even by dancing masters, the free use of hands and arms is considered as the foremost of all the graces of the drawing-room.

3. *Song.* Of all music, song from his own and companion's lips, delights and attracts the child. The soul plays in song and beauty steals across upon it. In our recollections, early songs are early homes to us. To play and sing makes the child truly a child; and when we are old brings us back into childhood's paradise, as long as music sounds.

4. *Rhythm*, which, whether made by clapping the hands, stamping with the feet, striking with the hammer, beating the drum, is life to the child! When he is not only allowed but desired to play thus, he is supremely pleased. When marching to the melodies of their songs, the Weseneder system lets the children emphasize the rhythm with various instruments, more or less musical. What in the Kindergarten is child's play, becomes an instrumental orchestra in the higher classes of the school.

Art should precede science in education. It develops the whole human soul more unconsciously, more harmoniously,

and thus we obtain as the foundation what is now only the superstructure of culture. Of all arts, music and drawing are the first in order.—*Miss Noa, in Kindergarten Messenger.*

THE Kindergarten has not only to supply materials and opportunities for the innate mental powers, which, like leaves and blossoms in the bud, press forward and impel the children to activity, with so much the more energy the better they are supplied. It has also to preserve children from the harm of civilization, which furnishes harm as well as food, temptations as well as salvation; and children must be kept from this trial till their mental powers have grown equal to its dangers. Much of the success of the Kindergarten (invisible at the time) is negative, and consists in preventing harm. Its positive success, again, is so simple, that it cannot be expected to attract more notice than, for instance, does fresh air, pure water, or the merit of a physician who keeps a family in health. —*Karl Froebel.*

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT.

There are two methods: First, that of repression or restraint; second, of direction or guidance. In the first method, the school is held in subjection by the power of fear. This, if carried out, will produce quietness and good order, but at the expense of their self respect. It degrades a pupil in his own eyes to be under the control of brute force, like a herd of cattle. Whip him, because he does this and don't do that; whip, for not studying; whip him, for missing a word in spelling. Oh, it is shameful! this misusing of their bodies and distorting of their souls. Only when all other things have *failed* should we allow our *animal* force to control.

On the other hand, the method of direction or guidance cultivates their self-respect, teaches them to govern themselves, which will be a lasting benefit to them through life, guarding them from many a danger. It is a law of childhood to be constantly active. It is the province of the teacher to guide this activity into proper channels. If you want to keep them out of mischief give them something to do. If you want them to study, make their lessons interesting. It is easier to enjoin a positive duty than a negative. Give them rewards for doing well, in their conduct and in their lessons, until the habits of study become fixed. Some have a prejudice against prizes or rewards, thinking they do more harm than good. I do not think so. The school is but the world on a small scale; and are we not *all* working for some prize or reward?

There are innumerable ways in which a teacher of tact or common sense can govern a school, without resorting to muscle, that lowest of all governing forces, except on rare occasions. Sometimes, when I think of the vast influence and responsibility of a teacher,—those many little eyes ever watching your movements, and imitating all that you do or say,—my heart almost fails me, and I ask myself the doubting question: "Am I fitted for my position?" Sometimes, when my head aches and everything goes wrong, my patience at its lowest ebb, then my enthusiasm vanishes in the distance, and I see nothing but the dull routine of school life. Doubtless, most teachers have experienced such days. Oh! the life of a teacher would be but a weary treadmill, if this state of things were continual; but, thank God, it is not, for the mists soon clear away and the sunshine returns. Then let us work on and hope on, not sinking by the wayside. If we cannot *grasp* our ideal, let us come as near it as possible.—*The School.*

JOHN A. DIX, State Superintendent of schools of New York, in 1837, gave the following decision on corporal punishment:

"A teacher must, for the purpose of maintaining proper order and discipline in his school, have a right to employ such means of correction as he may deem necessary to the accomplishment of the object. For any unnecessary or excessive severity he would be answerable in dam-

ages in a suit of law to the person aggrieved.

"A teacher ought not, I think, dismiss a scholar from school. From the nature of the common school system, teachers are, as a general rule, bound to receive and instruct all children sent to them. If a scholar is so refractory that he cannot be managed, and his dismission becomes necessary to the preservation of order, I think the teacher should lay the matter before the trustees for their direction; but not until the ordinary means of correction had been fully tried and found unavailing."

MORAL EDUCATION.—The principal has no control, nominally, outside the school grounds; really, he has complete jurisdiction. The civil law has little to do with this question; it is a moral one. It is not supposed that our municipal governments, through their police department, are unable to preserve the peace of the city; doubtless they are, but they do not; they never did, hence we infer they never will. The influence that makes boys and girls behave on the streets of their own town must come from the school. Fences, buildings, and sidewalks marked with chalk, urchins shouting after strangers, hooting at teams—in short, the thousand mean and impolite things that only boys ever know how to do, are a blot on the good name of a town, and often reflect seriously on the management of the school. No man can expect to remedy such evils in one or two years, where they have been long established. There may be a town where ten years will not suffice to accomplish the good behavior of the boys when running around the town; but no village exists where the head of the public school cannot make a perceptible advance in this reform in less than a year.—*Working Teacher.*

TALK with parents about their children. Many parents can give useful hints about teaching. Urge the parents to send their children to school regularly, and to talk with them about their studies. Review the day before retiring. Mark down your errors, their causes and effects—shun them in the future.

OPENING SCHOOL.

When I was a teacher I had one exercise, to which more than any other method of reading, I owed my success in this branch of instruction. I was accustomed to open school every morning with the reading of a portion of the Scriptures. At first, I read and required the pupils to listen, but this they did not always do. Then I required some one or more of them to read, but this failed to interest the rest. Then I read the verses alternately with them, but this broke up the connection of the text, and often produced a confusion of voices. At last I hit upon a plan which I pursued for fifteen years with the happiest effects. I required all the pupils to stand and read, not with me, but after me. I read as few words as the sense or pauses allowed; and then stopping, they read the same words, all together, and as nearly as possible, just as I had read them. For instance, in reading the Sermon on the Mount, I stopped at the bars, being careful to give the proper inflection of the voice, and to see that the whole school, which usually numbered more than a hundred, did the same.

"And seeing the multitudes, | he went up into a mountain: | and when he was set, | his disciples came unto him. | And he opened his mouth | and taught them, | saying, | Blessed are the poor in spirit, | for theirs is the Kingdom of heaven. | Blessed are they that mourn, | for they shall be comforted. | Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth." |

By this method, all the pupils were engaged in reading, and all were attentive. If I stopped to correct an error of pronunciation, it was noticed by all; if I stopped to explain the meaning of any word or phrase, all were benefited; if I stopped to ask a question, every one was ready to answer; finally, if I stopped to give any moral or religious instruction, I was generally sure of a very attentive audience. By requiring every pupil to

read as I did, without regard to her neighbors, the most perfect harmony was preserved, and any error produced a discord, which was as easily detected as a discord among a choir of singers.—*Fowle.*

BOSTON SCHOOL FOR DEAF MUTES.

"A few days ago, I went to the school for deaf mutes, to hear, ol rather to see Mr. Edward A. Spring, the sculptor, give a lesson in modelling. There are sixty-five pupils in the school, and with few exceptions, they appear to belong to the class of poor children, who have to struggle against many disadvantages, besides their lack of speech and hearing. The progress they have made since the school (one of the public free schools) was opened, is astonishing. Many of them write pretty well; lessons go on in arithmetic and geography; they read readily both printing and writing, and are slowly but surely developing the intelligence which deafness and dumbness had kept dormant. The younger children gesticulated extravagantly, and their animated but wordless conversations consist of the strangest and most unpleasant, though expressive contortions of the face. The burden of expression which they put upon their noses, tongues, and chins, as well as into eyes and lips, is wonderful, and the whole body helps, while the fingers work rapidly in the alphabet or only in natural gesture. As the pupils advance in years, and are instructed, this gesture is moderated, and in a few of the older girls was not seen at all. They had learned to speak in a quiet, gentle way, and could carry on a simple conversation, even with a stranger, by watching the motion of the lips. With their teachers, to whom they were accustomed, they talked freely.

"Mr. Spring had made one previous visit to the school, and so pleased and interested the pupils that he went a second time. As he uncovered his clay I saw one boy seize an atlas, find the map of New Jersey, give his neighbor a vigorous push, and with radiant face point first to the clay and then to Raritan Bay on the map. One of the teachers had told them at the time of the first lesson that Mr. Spring lived in New Jersey, and the clay which he used came from there. As he rapidly modeled various figures, with which the children were familiar, it was impossible to keep them in their seats. They crowded around him with all sorts of inarticulate expressions of delight. One of the figures was a bit of a baby, and immediately every pupil was looking and nodding at his neighbor, and making the motions of tending or tossing or playing with a baby. Sometimes they spoke out clearly, and greeted one head as George Washington and another as John Adams; but usually they do not actually speak, excepting to ask or answer questions. Mr. Spring works with extraordinary skill and rapidity, and his strange class were perfectly fascinated, as he moulded his clay into a head of fair size, and then, by rapid touches, changed the whole expression of it, and made them see how faces changed and showed all kinds of feeling. Some of the pupils had clay to experiment with for themselves, and their first attempts at modeling were up to the average of those of more favored children. Professor Bell's system of visible speech is taught in this school, and with success. I believe it has never failed; the enunciation of the children who use it is remarkably good. One shy-eyed, delicate little creature took a paper on which her teacher had written some words in visible speech, and read in a sweet, slow way, 'My dear father, come to me.' I believe those were the first words the father ever heard his little daughter speak."—*Worcester Spy.*

A GOOD teacher can become better. Be not satisfied with your present skill. Seek to improve yourself as a teacher. Study hard yourself and study daily. Try to learn more each day than you learned the day before. Have a fixed time for your own study. Use that time in study. If you do not love learning, why should your pupils?

SCHOOLMASTERS are not permitted to marry in Austria without the permission of the government.

WHY LANGUAGE SHOULD BE STUDIED.

The study of philology, or of language by itself, is undoubtedly of great value; but it is rather a study for the specialist than for the average student. It is, certainly, a true science; only, lacking precision in its methods, and being deficient in practical applicability to the general affairs of life, it must be left out of account for the present. In a general course of study a language should be taught because of its value in opening up other departments of knowledge. It should reveal to us the thoughts of other peoples, and enable us to avail ourselves of their experience. For most men these purposes are best fulfilled by a study of the modern tongues. Latin and Greek are valuable, no doubt, only they are less indispensable than French and German. These newer languages are not only of practical value, being spoken and written by millions of our fellow-beings to-day, but they have also many direct bearings upon all modern life. The sciences cannot be well studied without them; they open up the widest fields of recent thought; they bring us into closer harmony with the spirit of our own times. We can get along better without a knowledge of antiquity than without a knowledge of the days in which we live. The history of the siege of Troy has less interest for us than the history of the great social and economic problems which are being worked out in such deadly earnest in our own country and in Europe to-day. The ancient languages have their uses, unquestionably; so also have the Russian and the Chinese; but are those uses of sufficient importance to warrant universal study? Remembering the aims of education, we must also remember that every student has but a limited number of years to spend at college. In those few years he must acquire that learning which will best fit him to go forth and grapple with active duties. If he has both the taste and the leisure, then he can learn the dead languages after graduation. It is nothing to urge that Latin and Greek facilitate the acquisition of French and German, since the latter can be studied directly as well as the former. Few people can afford the time to study four languages in order to use but two.—*From "The Higher Education," in Popular Science Monthly for August.*

Universities as Conservators of Knowledge.

So far as the source whence money could be provided for the endowment of science is concerned, there is little difficulty. The additional taxation required to meet all probable expenses would be so light as scarcely to be appreciable. But in truth a fund already exists out of which the cost of the endowment of science might be defrayed either wholly or in great part—the sums bequeathed in old times to the universities. Nor would this application of university property involve a departure from the purpose for which those sums were originally bequeathed. On the contrary, we have evidence to show that the universities were originally founded, not for educational purposes solely or chiefly, but for the advancement and preservation of knowledge. In the third report of the Commissioners for the Advancement of Science, we find that the witnesses examined were "on no point more united than in the expression of the feeling that it is a primary duty of the universities to assist in the advancement of learning and science, and not to be content with the position of merely educational bodies;" and the evidence quoted shows that this opinion was based on the fact that such was the original purpose of the universities—that, in fact, "the collegiate foundations of the universities were originally and fundamentally, although not absolutely and entirely, destined for" that object. "This object" proceeds the report, "is certainly not less important in modern than [it was] in ancient society. In the middle ages, knowledge would altogether have perished if it had not been for such foundations, and it appears that now, from other causes, the pursuit of knowledge and of general scientific investigation is subject to very real dangers, though of another kind than those

which then prevailed, and which make it very desirable to preserve any institution through which scientific discovery and the investigation of truth may be promoted."—PROF. PROCTOR, *in Popular Sciences Monthly for August.*

FLASHES OF THOUGHT.

SELECTED BY D. M.

Truth whispered is more effective than nonsense thundered.

He who refuses forgiveness breaks the bridge over which he must pass.

If a man be gracious to strangers, it shows that he is a citizen of the world, and that his heart is no island cut off from the other lands, but a continent that joins them.—*Lord Bacon.*

Those who retire from the world on account of its sins and peskiness must not forget that they have yet to keep company with a person who wants as much watching as anybody else.

The Actual should govern the Ideal, the Positive should dictate the Probable. If thus it is not with us, we shall mistake dreams for prophecies, and creations that please us will often prove less than the gem islands the navigator thought he had discovered, which were but clouds and mists, suspended by the winds, and painted by the sunbeams. The Ideal should be the foreshadowing of the Actual, "as light is the shadow of Deity;" for shades should not please as where substances are not, as they then can be but the effect of a diseased vision.—*Henry Bacon.*

A form of cruelty that deserves special attention is the children's revival. It is a modern species of torture. It is designed to do for the heart and soul what the school does for the brain. It aims to force religion a dozen years before its time; to work on the fancies, and fears, and hopes of the young, till they are thrown into a fever which they are told is a religious experience; to catch them in a swirl of excitement when their minds are plastic as wax, and stamp the dogmas of a sect ineffacibly on their minds, and give their natures a twist from which they will never recover. It is a species of spiritual infanticide which is worse than child-murder, and the society which would prevent cruelty to the young, should arrest every revivalist who undertakes to practice his arts on innocent and unsuspecting children, as a child-stealer if not a child-killer. The thing is a caricature of Christiadity, a travesty of religion, a crime against human nature. All the sunshine and moral nurture for the young that are possible; but whoever puts a child into a spiritual hot-house ought to sweat for it. Wholesome instruction, better examples, sweeter influences, ampler encouragements and helps, so that every child shall naturally grow to the highest and ripest excellence; but whoever shall scare these little ones into the hopper of a church and grind them over so that they will come out all moulded on one pattern, with a creed wrought into their constitution, and a clamp worse than any Chinese shoe fastened on brain and heart, should be treated as a moral maniac.—*Golden Age.*

INSTITUTE WORK IN IOWA.

The following circular, issued to the County Superintendents of Iowa, may be suggestive to us:

The design of the normal institute is to afford to those who purpose to teach in the public schools, an opportunity for specific preparation. The brief time allowed for the institute, limits the subjects to be treated, and requires that the instruction shall be practical, thorough, and confined to the more difficult portions of the teacher's work.

The first requisite for a good institute is a corps of competent instructors. Only thoroughly qualified teachers of recent experience, should be appointed to this work. There are, within the state, many superior teachers whose instruction will be practical and thorough, whose methods can safely be followed, and whose example and zeal will inspire teachers to improve their teaching and their schools. It is believed that such instructors can usually be secured without difficulty.

The benefits received by the members

of the institute, will depend mainly upon the amount of study bestowed upon the subjects treated. Nothing should occupy the attention which does not pertain directly to the teacher's work. The time of the institute cannot profitably be consumed in general discussions or lectures.

Believing that the best results can be secured by assigning each member of the institute daily lessons to prepare and recite, a course of study has been prepared for this purpose.

It is not designed to treat exhaustively, or to present a comprehensive view of any entire branch, but to call attention to those topics not so generally understood, but considered essential, and to assign the amount of work appropriate for each recitation. While it is not expected that this programme will be wholly adapted to meet the wants of every normal institute, it is hoped that it may prove of assistance in every case. The conductor will make such modifications as existing circumstances may require.

Every recitation should be a model; but to teach the subject should be the leading purpose. In didactics, methods of instruction, with particular reference to children and the public schools,, will, appropriately, receive attention.

The lesson for the succeeding day, should in all cases be assigned, and, if necessary, the works in which the subjects are treated, should be mentioned. Those in attendance at the institute should make as careful and thorough preparation for recitation as the time will admit, using for this purpose, every moment when not engaged in recitation during the session, and all the available time when the institute is not in session.

Those only who have previously studied the subject of the lesson, are prepared to receive benefit from the recitation. Teachers should be notified to bring text-books for the purpose of study and reference.

If the subject requires, diagrams should not only be made by each member of the class, but should also be previously drawn upon the black-board unless of a character to be executed without consuming time that should be used in the recitation.

In making preparations for the institute, the superintendent should secure instructors early, and provide that they should be on hand promptly at the *beginning* of the institute. It is important that they remain throughout the entire session.

All teachers in the country should receive notice as early as practicable of the time and place appointed for the institute. Arrangements should also be made for suitable rooms in which to hold the institute, and for accommodation of teachers in attendance.

Provision should be made for one or two lectures each week; the remainder of the evenings should be devoted to study.

The plan of dividing the institute into two or more grades, according to the qualification of teachers has, so far, proved most satisfactory.

In the management of the work of the institute, constant attention should be given to punctuality, deportment, and correct methods of conducting the exercises. A complete record should be kept, showing the attendance, scholarship and deportment of teachers in attendance.

The names of the instructors engaged should be forwarded for approval along with the application for the appointment of the institute; the conductor should also be designated. At the close of the institute the blank report forwarded from this office with the appointment and State warrant, should be filled and promptly returned.

An exchange tells us that a school-boy's toothache generally commences at eight A. M., reaches its highest altitude at a quarter to nine, and after that disappears with a celerity that must be very comfortable to the sufferer. If at night that boy hasn't got four quarts of walnuts spread out to dry, up stairs, it is because there is no place up stairs to do it.

I cannot call riches better than the baggage of virtue: the Roman word is better—impedimenta (hindrances).—*Lord Bacon.*

NORMAL INSTITUTES.

[The following article on Normal Institutes was furnished for publication in the *Pennsylvania School Journal*, by Prof. S. Baldwin, Principal of the State Normal School at Kirksville, Missouri:]

A Normal Institute is an abbreviated and concentrated normal school. The normal school is the great instrumentality for preparing skillful teachers; but, in this country, a majority of teachers cannot avail themselves of its advantages. Many of the states have wisely provided for an annual Normal Institute in each county. These short term normal schools place normal methods, normal training and normal enthusiasm, within the reach of the mass of our teachers.

The Normal Institute is destined to become a permanent feature of popular education. Its present crude form will give place to a well-defined and well-digested plan. Instructors will prepare themselves for this peculiar work, and teachers will flock to it as the most attractive of all summer resorts. The objects of Normal Institutes are:

1. *To Train Teachers.*—Of the two hundred and twenty-five thousand teachers in this country, more than one-half are without any special preparation for their work; yet they are the educators of millions. To revolutionize this class of teachers is the primary object of the Normal Institute.

2. *To Keep Professional Teachers Bright.*—The isolated teacher becomes a fossil. He needs to come in contact with the mighty army of progress. Association, mental conflict, observation, comparison—these are conditions of professional growth. Each teacher needs the experience of all teachers.

3. *To Foster a Professional Spirit.*—Teaching is the grandest of all arts, and the noblest of all professions. Normal Institutes enable a few earnest educators to infuse a professional spirit into the masses, and to inspire each teacher with the determination to be content only with the highest achievements.

4. *To Deepen and Widen and Direct* the interest felt in popular education. In educational matters what teachers do not do or manage to have done will generally be left undone. The Normal Institute enables teachers to form plans and to carry them out. To meet the wants of all classes of teachers the Normal Institute must necessarily embrace two departments.

1. *Elementary Department.*—This will include the teachers of primary, intermediate and ungraded schools. These schools are first in importance, and demand the best efforts of educators.

2. *Advanced Department.*—In this will be included all professional teachers. It is highly encouraging to see the deep interest manifested in this work by presidents and professors of colleges, principals and teachers of academies and high schools, ministers, etc., etc.

TIME AND LENGTH OF INSTITUTE.

From necessity these Institutes must be held during July and August, and may continue from two to eight weeks. A term of four weeks is clearly the best. Teachers cannot well spend more time, and thorough work cannot be done in less.

The best results are obtained by holding two daily sessions. From 8 A. M. to 11 A. M., and from 2 P. M. to 5 P. M., will give satisfaction in most cases. Two evening lectures each week will add much to the interest.

Experience fixes fifty minutes as best for recitations. Six daily recitations may thus be provided. A rest of ten minutes should follow each recitation. Besides keeping the teachers wide awake and fresh, these rests afford an admirable opportunity for social culture.

The instructors should be master workmen. Second-rate teachers are fearfully out of place here. A principal and one assistant are generally sufficient. More instructors tend to weaken rather than strengthen the interest. It is best to have members of the Institute render all further assistance needed.

The principal should have the absolute control of the instruction and the programme of work. The county superintendent is the general manager. He de-

votes long weeks to working up the institute. Its interests engage all his time and energies. The best institute instructors receive from $40 to $75 per week. It pays to get the best.

WORK TO BE DONE.

Where so much must be omitted it is difficult to select. Methods of teaching the various branches, school management in its manifold phases, and human culture, including laws, means and methods of developing each faculty of the mind, must ever be the principal themes. These subjects can never be exhausted. Child-nature is continually bubbling up in new phases, and the most advanced educators must feel their imperfections. Also, the branches to be taught must be reviewed and discussed, and a vast amount of information will thus be communicated.

Some subjects may be best presented to the entire institute; others to the respective departments. The general outline here given will be changed to meet the wants of the teachers of the county.

WORK FOR COMBINED SESSIONS.

1. Methods of Culture—twenty lessons.
2. School Management—ten lessons.
3. Buildings, apparatus, etc.—five lessons.
4. Relations of elementary and high schools—five lessons.

This work may engage the entire institute from 10 A. M. to 11 A. M., and from 4 P. M. to 5 P. M. The association of teachers of all grades is highly beneficial. The discussions are not only intensely interesting, but also exceedingly valuable.

WORK FOR ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

1. School management—ten lessons.
2. Reading—ten lessons.
3. Penmanship and drawing—ten lessons.
4. Language and grammar—ten lessons.
5. Mental and written arithmetic—ten lessons.
6. Geography and map drawing—ten lessons.
7. History and civil government—ten lessons.
8. Natural science—ten lessons.

A satisfactory selection of subjects for this department is exceedingly difficult to make. At best, it will need to be changed from year to year.

WORK FOR ADVANCED DEPARTMENT.

1. Management of higher schools—ten lessons.
2. Supervision—five lessons.
3. Grading schools and examinations—five lessons.
4. Course of study—five lessons.
5. Practical education—five lessons.
6. School hygiene—five lessons.
7. History of educational methods—five lessons.
8. Methods in natural science—ten lessons.
9. Methods in language—ten lessons.
10. Methods in mathematics—ten lessons.
11. Methods in history—five lessons.
12. Morals and manners—five lessons.

In this department the professional teacher may enjoy a continual feast. The interest ought to be intense.

HOW TO DO THE WORK.

Teachers, like poets, are *born*, not made. Training but develops and directs. The institute instructors must grasp the situation and act from inspiration. Specific directions are impossible. Normal institutes by the scare are *murdered* by well-meaning but incompetent instructors. The work is unique. Of good teachers, scarcely one in a hundred succeeds here More than scholarship, and more than ability to manage a class, or lecture, is needed.

DIRECTIONS TO INSTITUTE INSTRUCTORS.

1. *Practically Illustrate* all that is excellent in the art of teaching. Theory is silver. Correct theory embodied in correct practice is golden. *Do* instead of telling *how to do.*

2. *Assign Definite Lessons.*—Make the Institute a school in fact. Require the teachers to prepare for each recitation. They *must* be led to do a large proportion of the work.

3. *Omit all Dry, Prosy Lectures.*—Nothing else will so soon kill an institute. The continual "clatter" of the instructor is as much out of place here as in the school room.

4. *Require Written Outlines* from day to day of the lessons of the previous day. Let the teachers exchange and grade each other's papers. All errors as to spelling, capitals, punctuation and grammar, should be noted, as well as the correctness of the matter and the nsatness of the work. The outlines should then be recorded in blank books. The matter and the method of each recitation ought to be of great value. Such a record will be a treasure.

5. *Use the Blackboard.*—Whenever appropriate keep a section of the class at the board. Let the rest of the class use their note-books in lieu of slates. Whenever possible illustrate on the board or by means of apparatus. Lead the pupils to realize that the right use of black-boards and school appartus is a leading element of teaching power.

6. *Prepare the Teacher for Practical Work.*—Train them to adjust their instruction to the wants of the civilization of the day, and to substitute the useful for the useless. A practical people demand more practical schooling.

7. *Introduce into the Recitation all Desirable Features.*

1. Give a brief topical review of the subject as previously considered.

2. Have a member of the class introduce the new lesson by a short essay or report.

3. For about half an hour concentrate upon the lesson the utmost energies of all. Lecture, question, illustrate, drill, elicit discussion.

4. Give the class ten minutes to ask questions and discuss the subject under consideration..

After four weeks thus spent the teacher will return to his work feeling that he has indeed been born again. He begins to realize the sublime capabilities of child nature, and the grand use of the work of the educator. Who dare say that his power for good has not been doubled?

No evil propensity of the human heart is so powerful that it may not be subdued by discipline.—*Seneca.*

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

DISTRICTS.

Question. If the electors in a new district refuse to meet and organize when notified, what can be done?

Answer. There does not appear to be any remedy. If no meeting takes place on the first notice however, as provided in Section 3, the supervisors are to call a meeting. (Sec. 4.) In the event of absolute neglect to meet, the supervisors should attach the territory to other districts again, so that the people if not disposed to maintain a school of their own, shall at least be required to help support some school, and have their children within some living district.

Q. If notice is given on Thursday for a meeting on the Monday following to organize a district, would the organization be legal?

A. The law requires "at least five days," and in the case you mention, the meeting should have been called on Tuesday. Should all the electors attend, or all who would wish to, and the organization go on harmoniously and the district perform its work, no harm would ensue from the defective notice; but should the legality of the organization be called in question by any elector, it might be necessary to set aside the action of the meeting.

Q. By mistake we failed to have ten days notice of our annual meeting, our district having a graded shool. Was our meeting legal?

A. Section 2 of the act in regard to this matter (p. 35, school code) expressly provides that such neglect "shall not invalidate the acts of any annual meeting," etc.; but the next section of school law (Sec. 18), also bears on the subject.

Q. In the election of school district officers does a majority or plurality elect?

A. The general principle is that a plurality elects, unless express provision is made that it shall require a majority. In a school district meeting the man who has the most votes is elected. (Revised Statutes, Chap. VII, Sec. 102.)

Q. If the reckoning has been lost as to the time of electing each district officer, how shall the same be found?

A. It would seem to be only necessary to go back to the date of the organization of the district, to set the matter right by the guidance of section 31. The date could surely be ascertained in some way.

Q. If a district through mistake has changed the rotation so as to elect two officers at their annual meeting for a term of three years, will such act be legal?

A. The act of electing at annual meeting is always legal, if there is a vacancy. If it is found out which one of the two should have been elected for a less term than three years, then at the expiration of the partial term, the district elects again for a full term. The vote to elect "for three years" when it should have been "for two years," or "for one year," does not render the election void for the lawful time.

Q. Is the vote of a district that a particular teacher be hired binding on the board?

A. It is not; it has only the force of a recommendation.

Q. Can a district, if it buys school-books under Chap. 315, General Laws of 1875, furnish them to the pupils by selling them, if the books are not loaned?

A. There seems to be no other way in which they can be properly "furnished" to the pupils if not loaned to them. They are not to be given away, except as provided in section 51.

Q. Have the electors of a school-district power to let contracts by vote, for building, selling property, etc., at annual or special meeting, the contractor being present?

A. No such power is included among those conferred upon a district, in section 19. The district has power to elect officers, who constitute, when met, the district board. (Sec. 46.) This board has power to buy and sell for the district (Sec. 47) and to make any necessary contracts. It is not likely the courts would recognize any contract made otherwise. (I was led once incautiously to express a different opinion.) The district would not be bound, I think, unless the contract was made in the usual way, by the board.

Q. Having 900 inhabitants only in our district, some say we are not permitted to raise over $1,000 for teacher's wages; how is it?

A. As the law now stands, it depends on the average daily attendance; if over 40, you are not restricted, by law. If not exceeding 40, you can raise only $550. See sub-section *Sixth* of Section 19, as amended by Chapter 339, of Laws of 1875. Where a district has less than 1,000 inhabitants it is restricted to $1,000 expenditure on school house, without previous consent of supervisors.

THE TOWN SYSTEM.

Q. Please explain how a new town that has but one district as yet, can secure the Town System. We wish to do it now before the other system becomes fixed by habit.

A. The town board of supervisors can form one or two more districts, of each territory as will be most likely to need a school first, and these new districts can organize, or at least go so far as to elect a clerk. The clerks of the several districts can then organize a town board, in October, and next March take steps to raise money, &c. In all cases it is to be noted that the old system must merge in the new one, not by a single step but by degrees. Only in this way can confusion and trouble be avoided.

FREE HIGH SCHOOLS.

Q. Is a district which maintains a graded school entitled to aid under the new High School Law?

A. It would be, if it should establish and organize and carry on its highest department as a high school, under the new law and under such conditions as may be prescribed. Such district would first of all take a vote to establish a high school.

Q. What is a "free high school" within the meaning of the new law?

A. It is a free school of advanced grade that shall be established by any city, village, town, or district as a high school, under said law, which shall maintain such course of study as shall have the consent of the State Superintendent;

it being understood of course that *tuition* will be "free" to all suitably qualified pupils attending within the limits of the district, town or other municipality that should establish the school.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Q. Is a scholar who has been expelled from school for insubordination debarred for all time or only for that particular term?

A. It would not do to hold that he can come back next term, if there is no change in *himself*. As well say that when a new governor comes in, all convicts in prison shall be released. Although a new teacher may perhaps come in with a new term, the scholars are probably much the same, and it would be a triumph for a bad boy to come back, without any evidence of penitence or reformation. Of course it would be well to consider the question of the restoration of expelled pupils, if there seemed to be reason for it.

Q. Will an apeal lie, if the supervisors neglect to extinguish a district which has failed for two years to maintain a school?

A. No, the remedy is *mandamus*. If, however, the supervisors were petitioned to make certain changes in the districts, the *effect* of which would be to extinguish a certain district, and they met and considered the subject, and refused, an appeal would lie.

Q. Can a county superintendent force a teacher on a district when he holds only a "permit" to teach in the town?

A. A superintendent has no power in the matter. He may of course recommend, and his recommendation ought to be entitled to weight, but it rests entirely with the board whether they will hire this or that teacher, the same being "qualified."

Q. What is the force and effect of a State Certificate or a Diploma of a Normal School, when it is countersigned,—can the holder be subjected to any further examination, in order to obtain a school, in any city in the State?

A. The holder is a "qualified" teacher, in the eye of the law, and can legally contract to teach any public school in the State without further examination; but if any city school board declines to enter into contract unless the party will submit to an examination, there is no compulsion upon the board to accept the certificate or diploma as sufficient evidence. Such examination does not add to the legal qualifications of the teacher, but is merely a concession to the caution, or prudence or wisdom of the board which does not put full faith in the judgment of the previous examiners.

Q. As the 4th of July came on Sunday this year, some of our teachers are claiming that they were entitled to take Monday as holiday; is there any law for this?

A. Certain days are declared legal holidays; from this results the closing of the public schools, on such days, while the day counts, nevertheless as a school day both for district and teacher. Chap. 243, General Laws of 1861, enacts that "whenever the 4th day of July, the 25th day of December, the 1st day of January and the 22d day of February, shall fall upon Sunday, the following Monday shall be a legal holiday." Monday, the 5th day of July, 1875, was therefore a legal holiday for both districts and teachers.

Q. Does the law require that U. S. History shall be taught in district schools? Teachers must be examined in it.

A. The law does not require it. The seeming discrepancy between sections 55 and 102 arises in this way: as enacted in 1863, neither section mentions history. In 1866, the words "history of the United States" were inserted in section 102. The teacher must be prepared to teach history, and ought to have some acquaintance with it as a matter of general information. The board may require it to be taught, under section 55.

A LITTLE deaf and dumb girl was once asked by a lady, who wrote the question on a slate, "What is prayer?" The little girl took the pencil and wrote the reply: "Prayer is the wish of the heart." So it is. Fine words and beautiful verses do not make real prayer, without the sincere wish of the heart.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

TO OUR SUBSCRIBERS.

Those who are indebted for the current volume (ending with December) will oblige us very much by remitting the subscription price, adding ten cents for postage, which we have to pre-pay. We need these subscriptions to pay for paper and printing, and would be glad to be saved the necessity of sending that unwelcome little missive, a "Bill."

OPENING OF THE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

A corrected and completed calendar is as follows:

Oshkosh, Fall Term opens Tuesday, August 24; Whitewater, Fall Term opens Tuesday, August 31; Platteville, Fall Term opens Tuesday, September 7; River Falls, Fall Term opens Tuesday, September 7.

The reader is referred to 2d page of cover.

STATE UNIVERSITY.

The Fall Term begins Wednesday, September 8th. Those wishing further information will apply for a catalogue, to

Pres. JOHN BASCOM, Madison, Wis.

NORMAL INSTITUTES.

The following is the revised list for the campaign of 1875, including the county, place, time, duration and conductors:

Polk, Osceola Mills, August 9; 4 weeks.—A. O. Wright, C. W. Fenlason.

Manitowoc, Manitowoc, August 16; 2 weeks—M. Kirwan, C. F. Viebahn, H. Barns.

Sauk, Reedsburg and Spring Green, August 9; 4 weeks—J. H. Terry, J. T. Lunn.

Grant, Boscobel, August 9; 2 weeks—D. McGregor, H. Jane.

Juneau, New Lisbon, August 9; 4 weeks A. Salisbury, W. S. Johnson.

Eau Claire, Eau Claire, August 9; 4 weeks—A. J. Hutton, H. C. Howland.

Richland, Richland Centre, August 16; 2 weeks—R. Graham, N. C. Twining.

Vernon, Viroqua, August 23; 4 weeks—D. McGregor, A. F. North.

Walworth, Elkhorn, August 9; 3 weeks—Geo. Beck, E. H. Sprague.

Monroe, Sparta, August 9; 2 weeks—O. R. Smith, —— ——.

Dunn, Menomonie, August 9; 4 weeks—J. B. Thayer, A. Earthman.

Pierce, River Falls, August 16; 2 weeks—W. D. Parker, —— ——.

Waukesha, Waukesha, September 6; 3 weeks—A. Salisbury, I. N. Stewart.

Green Lake, Berlin, August 9; 2 weeks—H. Barns, A. A. Spencer.

Hon. John H. French, late State Superintendent of Vermont, and one of the most experienced and successful Institute Conductors of the East will at several of the above places assist in conducting the Institutes, and will deliver evening addresses.

THE MEETINGS.—As we go to press, the meeting at Eau Claire is closing up. The state Superintendent, who was delayed in going by illness, was present the last day. Mr. R. W. Burton, of Janesville, tells us on his return that he found the sessions very interesting, though not largely attended.

Next comes the more important one at Minneapolis. We hope to give an account of both in the September issue.

WE find a very brief abstract of Prest. Bascom's Lecture on "Architecture" before the Association the first evening, in the *State Journal:*

He gave an historical account of the growth of architecture, spoke of its psychological bearings and suggested the style which should be used in our educational institutions. The building should be such that it organically harmonizes with nature and to the soil to which it is attached. He illustrated by models the different forms of architecture, their specific advantages and general utility. The main idea should be adaptability. We should break the spell which attaches us to the old and renders us imitative. We should be original and use those forms which best subserve our purposes.

PREST. EMERY'S Opening Address is thus reported:

He said the objects of this association, as set forth in its constitution and charter, are self-improvement and the advancement of the cause of education. There

are evidences that the association has been accomplishing its objects. It is impossible to prepare ourselves for our work without being benefited thereby. Debates are adapted to the teachers' wants. Conceits are taken away and new impulses received. The eventual interchange of thought is beneficial. Our association has done its part in securing the greatest educational facilities to the State. Would it not be wise to appoint a committee to write the history of the association and present it at some future meeting. Such a history was written by Prof. J. L. Pickard in 1859, and showed how much good the association had accomplished.

The organization was effected in 1853. Previous to this there were no JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, Institutes, etc. In 1854 the association favored the publishing of an Educational paper, and that the Superintendent of Public Instruction take charge of the same. In 1855 the association established the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. It was discontinued during the war, but revived. In 1855 resolutions were adopted favoring the establishing of graded schools and asking the legislature to further the perfection of the graded school system. He favored the ideas set forth by the National Teachers' Association favoring Teachers' Institutes and examination. In 1857 the association brought forward the question of County Superintendency. This was an improvement on the old system. Is there not room for further improvement? In 1857, the Normal School question was agitated. To-day we have three working Normal Schools, and a fourth to be started in September next. Our Normal School system was highly commended by State Superintendent Searing in his annual report. Should our Normal Schools be organically connected with the University? Should they introduce the Kinder Garten system? What are the functions of public and the rights of parochial schools? The school superintendent should be subject to examination. What part shall the Association take in the Centennial? We should foster the law of last winter in regard to high schools. He quoted from the *National Teachers' Association Monthly* on the difficulties that beset a High School system; commends the acts of last winter's Legislature on educational topics in general. In its efforts to promote popular education, the Association has done little to perfect its own organization. This should be attended to. Officers should be more permanent, and there should be a general reorganization.

These were some of the points brought out in the address, which was listened to with great interest.

OF the meeting of Institute Conductors, a correspondent of the *Journal* says:

One of the most important and profitable educational gatherings ever held in this state, closed its session this afternoon. It has been customary, of late years, to hold meetings of Institute Conductors in connection with the annual session of the State Teachers' Association, Two years ago such a meeting was held at Sparta, and last year at Madison. The salutary effect of these two gatherings is noticeable in the large number of educational men who have attended the meeting just closed. Not only were all of those gentlemen who are to have charge of the institute work this year present, but many who have no immediate connection with this work, participated in the deliberations.

The deliberations were presided over by Prof. Robert Graham, whose education and previous work in this state peculiarly fit him to direct the thought and actions of those assembled to perfect our inititute system, which is so highly beneficial to teachers.

AT the recent meeting of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools, it was voted to dedicate our Fourth Normal School, under the Presidency of Prof. Parker, September 2d. Hon. Edward Searing, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, will deliver the address. The entire board will be present.

The following appointments to the Faculty were made: Professor of Mathematics and Institute Conductor, J. B. Thayer, ot Menominee; Instructors, Misses L. J. Foote, E. B. Armstead and H. A. Beaman. Other appointments are held under advisement. Of President Thayer we can speak in the highest terms. The names of the others are new to us.—*River Falls Journal.*

Prof. J. T. Lovewell, formerly in charge of the department of Mathematics at that school, has been appointed, we understand, by the Normal Board, Professor of Natural Science in the Whitewater Normal School. For three years past Prof. Lovewell has been familiarizing himself with several branches of science in the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale College. If he accepts, he will come back to Whitewater with the prestige of old confidence in his accurate scholarship, and of new ability as a teacher in new fields.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

COMMON SCHOOL LAW, for Common School Teachers. Re-printed from the School Bulletin and N. Y. State Educational Journal. Albany: The School Bulletin.

This tiny book, of some fifty small pages, treats upon various points of law in which teachers are concerned, and though specially adapted to the state of New York, must be useful everywhere, particularly in its discussion of the teacher's authority. A dozen pages are devoted to the "Wisconsin Decision." The opinions of many Superintendents have been gathered, and considerable diversity is exhibited. Ex-Superintendent Bateman, and his successor, Etter, in Illinois; Briggs, of Michigan; Burt, of Minnesota, and Conant, of Vermont, sustain the decision; Philbrick, of Boston; Kiddle, of New York; Harris, of St. Louis; Newell, of Baltimore; Williams, of Wheeling; Stockwell, of Rhode Island; C. S. Smart, of Ohio; J. H. Smart, of Indiana, and Trousdale, of Tennessee, are adverse to it. White, ex-Superintendent of Ohio, speaking of a similar decision in Iowa, thinks if the parent has the *right* to select, it will be subversive of all proper classification and gradation of the schools," but "that the course of study can be made flexible enough to permit all needful departures from uniformity." Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, is noncommittal. Apgar, of New Jersey, expresses no opinion, but says their course of study in the common schools is determined by the trustees and county superintendent. Abernethy, of Iowa, says, "the teacher, principal, or superintendent, under the direction of the board, determines the studies to be pursued by each pupil." Many superintendents whose views were asked, "confessed themselves unable to express a definite opinion." Harris, of St. Louis, seems to reach just about the common sense of the whole matter. He says: "I will say that only in the most rudimentary form of the country school can this be conceded, and there only by long established custom. In all schools where an attempt at grading is made, such a right could not be allowed at all. Such a right conceded to parents in our towns and villages, would prevent the possibility of any higher organization than the old-fashioned ungraded school. Hence such powers have been vested in school committees, almost without exception."

Equally pertinent is the remark of superintendent Smart, of Indiana: "If it is generally conceded by intelligent people that a passable acquaintance with the common English branches, as taught in our public schools, is necessary to success in life, then I conclude that the school authorities should heed no objection made by the parent against his child studying the branches of the prescribed course—except only that the child is physically unable to take the full course of study."

A PRIMARY ARITHMETIC, and Teacher's Manual, with Graded Class and Seat Exercises.

THE ELEMENTS OF ARITHMETIC, for Intermediate Grammar and Common Schools. By EDWARD OLNEY, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Michigan. New York: Sheldon & Co.

The reputation of Prof. Olney and the success of his higher works in Mathematics, will lead teachers and school boards to hail these books with much interest, and we must apply to them a description given in a former number to his Algebra, namely: "made attractive." We are particularly pleased with the "Primary." It meets the wants and capacities of the common pupils of various grades, in a most happy manner, and the suggestions to teachers will prove very useful. The "Elementary" is also a judicious second book, and the two are designed to cover the whole ground of mental and written arithmetic for common schools. Prof. Olney thinks, and very wisely, we should say, that there is no longer any need to go through such a multiplicity of books in arithmetic. To this the children will say a hearty amen. The publishers are to be commended for seconding the reform.

FIRST BOOK IN ARITHMETIC, Including Oral and Written Exercises.

THE COMPLETE ARITHMETIC, Oral and Written. By DANIEL W. FISH, A. M., Editor of Robinsons Series of Progressive Arithmetics. New York and Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

These candidates for arithmetical favor at once recommend themselves by their attractive appearance. Like well dressed and well-mannered people, they prepossess you. And in this case at least appearances are not deceptive. Mr. Fish has brought old experience to bear successfully upon a new enterprise, and the result is a couple of books that admirably cover the ground, and like Prof. Olney's dispense with the old custom of separate books for mental and written exercises. Both for discipline and utility we take it this is the best course. The constant aim of the teacher should be to enlarge the field of the mental and abridge that of the written; that is, to enable the pupil to dispense more and more with the crutch of slate and pencil. Some may doubt the wisdom of making such beautiful—we may almost say luxurious—school-books. They must cost more; but after all, is not the æsthetic faculty in the school boy one that may be cultivated with profit? If he respects his books he will respect other things more.

PICTORIAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. By JOHN A. STEWART. Principal of the Reading, Pa. High School. Philadelphia: J. H. Butler & Co.

The freshly awakened interest in the history of our country, induced by the approaching "Centennial," will give new importance to compilations on the subject. The neatly printed and handsomely illustrated volume before us seems to subserve admirably its purpose as a school history. We quote a little good advice from the author—who is a practical teacher—to the student: "Do not attempt simply to memorize the language of the writer, ignoring the general knowledge conveyed. Read thoughtfully and understandingly, and you will soon acqire a taste for this most pleasant of studies, while your ideas will clothe themselves spontaneously in easy, natural and expressive language."

SEE advertisement of Swinton's New Geographical Course, last page of cover.

Also—new advertisements of Ridpath's School History of the U. S., Kellogg's Educational List, and "Past and Present."

A NEW and revised edition of Hotze's First Lessons in Natural Philosophy, has been issued.

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WISCONSIN

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WISCONSIN STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

In accordance with the action of the Executive Committee, the Twenty-Third Annual Session of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association was held in the Eau Claire County Court House, Eau Claire, July 28, 29 and 30, 1875.

EVENING SESSION.

July 28.

President J. Q. Emery took the chair at 8 o'clock. The meeting was opened with an appropriate anthem, by a choir under the leadership of Rev. A. Kidder, of Durand.

Rev. J. F. Dudley offered prayer.

Hon. W. P. Bartlett, for eighteen years director of the School Board of Eau Claire, welcomed the Association to the city in a brief and appropriate address.

President Emery briefly responded, and invited the citizens of Eau Claire to attend the meetings and participate in the discussions of the Association.

President John Bascom, of the University of Wisconsin, was then introduced, and delivered a lecture on "Architecture."

The session was closed with a quartette by Mrs. E. J. Swift, Mrs. W. H. Lockwood, Mrs. A. V. Mayhew, and Rev. A. Kidder, Miss Augusta Kidder at the piano.

MORNING SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 9 o'clock. After prayer by Rev. A. Kidder, of Durand, and singing by the choir, Vice President W. H. Chandler took the chair, and President Emery delivered the Annual Address.

On motion of A. Salisbury, the President's address was referred to the following committee, for distribution to special committees: W. D. Parker, H. A. Spencer, H. C. Howland.

The charter and the constitution of the Association were then read by the Secretary.

The chair appointed the following named gentlemen a committee on enrollment of members: R. Graham, W. E. Anderson, C. W. Roby.

After a short recess, J. B. Thayer, of Menomonie and Miss Helen M. Bingham, of Monroe, whose names appeared next on the programme, being absent, E. B. Wood, of Oshkosh, was introduced and read a paper upon "Educational Backbone."

A. F. North, of Pewaukee, followed with a paper on "Teachers' Examinations and State Certificates."

A spirited and interesting discussion followed the reading of these papers, participated in by President Albee, of Oshkosh; Supt. MacAlister, of Milwaukee; Prest. W. F. Phelps, of Winona, Minnesota; John H. French, LL. D., of Vermont; Hon. W. D. Henkle, of Ohio; H. S. Tarbell, City Supt. East Saginaw, Michigan; Prest. John Bascom, of the University of Wisconsin, and Supt. W. H. Chandler, of Sun Prairie.

The committee on President's Address, through their chairman, W. D. Parker, reported the following, which was adopted:

Your committee, to whom was referred the President's address for distribution, have had the same under consideration and report the following sub committees:

1. *Re-organization of the Association.*—G. S. Albee, N. C. Twining, J. B. Thayer.

2. *History of the Association.*—Albert Salisbury, A. J. Hutton, J. M. Rait.

3. *Function of the Normal Schools.*—W. H. Chandler, D. McGregor, O. Arey.

4. *Teachers Certificates and Education of Teachers.*—A. F. North, J. F. Ellis, A. A. Spencer.

5. *Centennial Exposition.*—Geo. Beck, J. L. Wallace, L. D. Harvey.

6. *Township System of School Government, and Free High Schools.*—John Bascom, J. T. Lunn, H. C. Howland.

7. *University.*—Edward Searing, Jas. MacAlister, John McGregor.

8. *Women as School Officers.*—O. R. Smith, W. E. Anderson, W. S. Johnson.

9. *Text Books.*—E. B. Wood, Geo. M. Bowen, T. E. Williams.

10. *School Libraries.*—I. N. Stewart, J. H. Terry, R. L. Reed.

11. *Functions of Common and Parochial Schools.*—Robert Graham, E. H. Sprague, Supt. G. M. Guernsey.

All which is submitted.

W. D. PARKER,
A. A. SPENCER,
H. C. HOWLAND.

Adjourned to 5 o'clock.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

July 29.

At 2 o'clock the afternoon session was opened by an anthem by the choir. Hosea Barns, whose paper, "Sewing," was the order for the hour, being absent, President O. Arey, of Whitewater, read a paper on "The Function of the Normal School."

The discussion following this paper was interesting and profitable. The following gentlemen took part: W. H. Chandler, E. B. Wood, C. G. G. Paine, A. F. North and G. M. Guernsey.

The following committees were announced by the chair:

Honorary Members—H. C. Howland, G. M. Bowen, Ellen Mosher.

Finance—A. Earthman, A. H. Porter. Martha Kidder.

Resolutions—A. Salisbury, James MacAlister, R. Graham.

Miss M. A. Wadsworth, of Fond du Lac, and S. R. Mitchell, of Milwaukee, were both absent. "Educational Intelligence," according to programme the order for 4:25 o'clock, was made the order at this hour. "Short speeches" were made by Supt. Chandler, of Sun Prairie; A. Earthman, St. Paul; C. W. Roby, La Crosse; Prest. Phelps, Winona; Supt. Pickard, Chicago; Dr. French, Vermont; Supt. MacAlister, Milwaukee; Hon. W. D. Henkle, Ohio; Supt. H. S. Tarbell, East Saginaw, Michigan; Prest. Bascom, of the University of Wisconsin, and Prof. E. H. Merrill, of Ripon College.

Adjourned to 8 o'clock.

EVENING SESSION.

July 29.

After music by the choir, and prayer by Prof. Merrill, of Ripon College, Mr. Fred. Graham, of Eau Claire, sang a solo, Mrs. E. J. Swift at the piano.

John H. French, LL. D., of Vermont, was then introduced and delivered a lecture on "Entomology."

Mrs. E. J. Swift sang a solo—"The Death of Warren."

MORNING SESSION.

July 30.

After an anthem by the choir, and prayer by Pres. Bascom, the committee to whom was referred that portion of the President's Address relating to "Township System of School Government and Free Town High Schools," reported the following, which was adopted:

Your committee would report favorably to the Town, and adversely to the District, as the unit in school government, for many reasons, these being prominent among them:

First. A more able school committee can be obtained in the town than in each district of the town.

Second. Local conditions unfavorable to

school interests are not likely to prevail in a town as strongly as they may prevail in a district.

Third. Purely personal considerations have not the same weight in a town as in a district.

Fourth. A town can impart unity to its schools, recombine them, establish a high school, and cause the instruction of its schools to be in harmony with it.

Your committee would give the present high school law their most hearty approval, and express their earnest desire that it may receive a thorough, fair trial.

They are also desirous that the definition of a high school shall in each of the towns be such as to secure a real advance in instruction.

J. BASCOM,
J. T. LUNN,
H. C. HOWLAND.

The following report was presented and adopted:

Your committee, to whom was referred that portion of the President's Address referring to the History of the Association, respectfully report that they have had the same under consideration, and do hereby recommend that some suitable person be appointed by the President of the Association to prepare such history, and procure its publication in the WISCONSIN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, within the ensuing year.

A. SALISBURY,
A. J. HUTTON,
J. M. RAIT,
Committee.

In accordance with the recommendation of the above report, the President appointed A. Salisbury Historian of the Association.

The committee on "Functions of Common and Parochial Schools," requested permission to postpone the making of their report till the winter meeting of the Association, next December. On motion the request was granted.

The President announced the following committees:

Nominations—R. Graham, D. McGregor, J. M. Rait.

Obituaries—O. R. Smith, A. F. North, J. H. Terry.

The following report was adopted:

Your committee on Honorary Membership would recommend that the following gentlemen be chosen Honorary Members of this Association: Hon. J. L. Pickard, Chicago; John H. French, LL. D., Vermont; Prest. W. F. Phelps, Winona; Hon. W. D. Henkle, Ohio; Prof. E. H. Merrill, Ripon College; H. S. Tarbell, East Saginaw, Michigan; A. Earthman, St. Paul; O. Whitman, Red Wing, Minnesota; Rev. A. Kidder, Durand, and the resident clergymen of Eau Claire in attendance upon the meetings of the Association—viz: Rev's W. H. Lockwood, J. F. Dudley, R. Telford, J. B. Bachman and P. B. Morrison.

H. C. HOWLAND,
GEO. M. BOWEN,
Miss H. C. MOSHER,
Committee.

W. E. Anderson, of Waukesha, read a paper on "Drawing."

Miss A. R. Luse, of Albion, favored the Association with "Select Readings."

After a short recess, and music by the choir, A. Salisbury, of Whitewater, read a paper on "The District School Curriculum." The same subject was discussed by Prest. Bascom, Supt. MacAlister, John H. Rolfe, A. F. North, E. B. Wood, Supt. Searing, O. R. Smith and Prof. E. H. Merrill.

On motion, the following gentlemen were appointed a committee to formulate the sense of the Association on the subject.

District School Curriculum—E. Searing, R. Graham, J. Bascom, O. R. Smith, A. F. North.

The following was then presented and adopted:

Your committee, to whom was referred the subject of the feasibility of adopting a course of study for Normal Institutes for a term of years, beg to report as follows:

Your committee fully realize the advantages arising from following a prescribed course of study. It gives definiteness as well as comprehensiveness to the work required. Yet it seems that a very serious mistake may be made by prescribing the same course of study for sections of the state differing in educational facilities

to such an extent as they do in this state at present. Your committee would much prefer to recommend the adoption of a course of study, and obtained a postponement of this report from the Executive Session of last winter, in the hope that sufficient data might be collected upon which to base an intelligent opinion. Such data have not yet been obtained. Believing that the time may come when such action may be not only expedient but necessary, and knowing that a failure in its operation, arising through a premature attempt, would prove an obstacle when the proper time arrived, we have preferred to report against the adoption of such a course. Our objections are based upon the following considerations, and are comprised under two heads:

I. Such as grow out of the objects and aims sought to be attained by Institutes.

II. Such as grow out of the conditions under which Institutes must be held.

Under the first head might be mentioned:

(*a.*) They are not designed for giving academic instruction to any great extent, and teachers unqualified in this respect must be taught by this means to look to other sources for their advancement in scholarship.

(*b.*) They can do almost nothing for discipline or culture, and the impression should not go abroad that they are a royal road to either of those.

(*c.*) They are designed to familiarize teachers with the best methods of presenting and developing subjects.

(*d.*) They are designed to secure attention to and interest in particular branches of study, and to proper methods of organizing and managing schools.

Under the second head:

(*a.*) The work done in Institutes must vary in different places, and with different classes, to meet existing needs.

(*b.*) The inevitable fact that but few teachers attend successive Institutes, owing in part to the necessity of holding them at different points, even in the same county. In several respects the Institute is yet too variable to be profited by a course of study.

(*c.*) The utter impossibility of giving any exhaustive instruction upon any branch during the short time pupils can be held in an Institute, and the consequent danger to the popularity and usefulness of the Institute work, by advertising to do what, under the most favorable circumstances, can have but partial success. Respectfully submitted,

D. McGregor,
W. H. Chandler,
J. H. Terry,
Committee.

Adjourned to 2 o'clock.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The following was read and adopted:

Your committee on Finance beg leave to report that they have examined into the accounts of the Secretary and Treasurer, and find the finances of the Association in the following condition:

Cash on hand at close of session of 1874..	$88 19
Cash received for membership tickets ...	93 00
Total.....	$181 19
Expenditures, as per vouchers.....	90 74
Balance on hand	$90 45

Respectfully submitted,

A. Earthman,
Martha Kidder,
Committee.

The committee having in charge that part of the President's Address relating to "Text-Books," and the committee on that part relating to "Teachers' Certificates," were allowed until next winter meeting to prepare their reports.

The report of the committee on National Centennial was adopted as follows:

Your committee to whom was referred that portion of the President's Address relating to the approaching Centennial, would recommend that a committee of this Association be appointed to co-operate with Hon. John Eaton in securing the best practicable representation of the educational interests of this state in the exhibition at Philadelphia.

Respectfully submitted,

Geo. Beck,
J. L. Wallace,
L. D. Harvey.

The President announced as such committee, G. S. Albee, H. C. Howland, Jas. MacAlister, E. H. Merrill.

On motion, it was voted to allow the ladies of the Association, as a separate body, to express their thanks to all who were instrumental in the passage of the law last winter, making women eligible to school offices in this state.

In accordance with the above, an informal expression of thanks was made by the ladies.

Prof. E. H. Merrill read a paper on "The Student's Hope."

Miss Martha Kidder, of Oshkosh, read an essay—"Can We Do It?"

Supt. James MacAlister spoke upon the subject of "A State School Tax." The subject was further discussed by A. F. North, Prest. Arey and Supt. Searing.

On motion the subject was referred to a committee of three, with instructions to report next winter.

The following were appointed as such committee: James MacAlister, Edward Searing, A. F. North.

On motion, it was voted that Miss Bingham's paper be handed by the Secretary to the editors of the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION for publication.

Supt. Searing read a paper on the "High School Law." The paper called out a discussion of the law, in which the following gentlemen took part: A. F. North, I. N. Stewart, W. P. Bartlett, C. G. G. Paine and Prest. Bascom.

On motion it was voted that a committee of five be appointed to examine the course of study prepared for Town High Schools by the State Superintendent. Committee appointed as follows: Prest. Bascom, Prest. Arey, R. Graham, D. McGregor, and Supt. G. M. Guernsey.

By request, the committee on "Function of the Normal Schools" were allowed until next winter meeting for the preparation of their report.

The following report was adopted:

The special committee, to which was referred the subject of "The District School Curriculum," report the following resolutions:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Association that the primary district schools of the state should give formal instruction in Reading, Writing, Spelling, Arithmetic, Geography and Grammar, but that incidentally instruction should also be given in History, Drawing and Botany.

Resolved, That this Association decidedly disapprove of the teaching in those schools of any other than the English language.

E. SEARING,
R. GRAHAM,
J. BASCOM,
O. R. SMITH,
A. F. NORTH.

By request, the committee on "Libraries" were allowed until the winter meeting to prepare their report.

The committee on "Obituaries" offered the following resolutions, which were adopted by a standing vote of the Association:

Resolved, That in the death of Hon. Thomas H. Little this state has lost a public servant of greatest worth; education one of its strongest supporters; ourselves a noble brother, and the unfortunate blind a true friend and paternal protector.

Resolved, That our deepest sympathies are tendered to his family in their bereavement, and our cordial encouragement to his noble wife in her efforts to carry out his work.

O. R. SMITH,
A. F. NORTH,
Committee.

After a short recess the Association proceeded to the election of officers for the ensuing year. H. C. Howland, of Eau Claire, was nominated for President. The Association having voted, the result was declared as follows:

Total number of votes cast	52
Necessary to an election	27
H. C. Howland received	48
Scattering	4

H. C. Howland was therefore declared duly elected President of the Association for the ensuing year.

The committee on Nominations reported the following:

Vice Presidents—G. M. Guernsey, E. B. Wood, Miss S. A. Stewart.
Secretary—N. J. Hutton.
Treasurer—J. H. Terry.
Executive Committee—J. Q. Emery, G. S. Albee, W. D. Parker, James MacAlister, A. F. North.

Respectfully submitted,

R. GRAHAM,
D. MCGREGOR,
J. M. RAIT.
Committee.

The report as above having been adopted, on motion, the Secretary was instructed to cast the ballot of the Association for the persons named in the report, for the offices designated. This having been done, the Secretary declared them duly elected to their respective offices for the ensuing year. Adjourned to 8 o'clock.

EVENING SESSION.

July 30.

At 8 o'clock the session opened with music by the choir, and prayer by the Rev. W. H. Lockwood. After prayer a quartet was sung by A. V. Mayhew, C. F. Mayhew, Jasper Kepler and S. H. Wilcox.

President Emery then happily introtroduced Supt. Pickard, of Chicago, whose name is first on the list of the original members of the Association.

Supt. Pickard then delivered a lecture on "Language Study—Its Means and Its End."

Mrs. E. J. Swift then sang a Scottish ballad—"A man's a man for a' that."

The following report was adopted:

Your committee on Resolutions would respectfully report the following, viz:

Resolved, That we would recognize our indebtedness to the Press of the State for the extensive notice which this meeting has received; and to the railroads, steamboat lines and hotels which have favored us with a reduction of rates.

Resolved, That we shall long hold in remembrance the people of Eau Claire, for their overflowing hospitality, and for the interest which they have shown in the deliberations of our body.

Resolved, That we return thanks to Principals Hutton, Howland, Williams and Crandall, for their unremitting and systematic labor, which has so contributed to the success of this meeting and comfort of its members.

Resolved, That our gratitude is due in an especial manner to Rev. A. Kidder, and the sweet singers of Eau Claire, for the inspiring music with which they have enlivened our sessions; and to the ladies, whose fine taste is shown in the decoration of our place of meeting.

Resolved, That we would make acknowledgment to President John Bascom, Hon. J. H. French, and Hon. J. L. Pickard, for the instructive lectures with which they have favored us.

ALBERT SALISBURY,
ROBT. GRAHAM,
JAMES MACALISTER,
Committee.

A. F. North presented the following, and it was adopted:

Resolved, That the hearty thanks of this Association be and are hereby tendered to the President and other officers of this society, for the very efficient services they have rendered us on this occasion.

Mrs. Teall and Mr. Lockwood sang a duet—Mrs. Callahan at the piano.

The President then declared the Twenty-third Annual Session of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association adjourned *sine die*.

J. Q. EMERY, *President*.

A. J. HUTTON, *Secretary*.

EAU CLAIRE, Wis., Aug. 7, 1875.

Messrs. SEARING & PRADT, *Editors Journal of Education:*

GENTLEMEN:—I send you by to-day's mail a report of the meeting of the Association, just past.

It occurs to me that the following summary of unfinished business may be of value, as indicating in some measure the character of the meeting next December. Please find a place for it in your columns:

Reports of the following committees to be made:

Functions of the Normal Schools—W. H. Chandler, D. McGregor, O. Arey.

Teachers' Certificates—A. F. North, J. T. Ellis, A. A. Spencer.

University—Edward Searing, James MacAlister, John McGregor.

Women as School Officers—O. R. Smith, W. E. Anderson, W. S. Johnson.

Free Text-Books—E. B. Wood, G. M. Bowen, T. E. Williams.

School Libraries—I. N. Stewart, J. H. Terry, R. L. Reed.

Functions of Common and Parochial Schools—R. Graham, E. A. Sprague, G. M. Guernsey.

Reorganization of the Association—G. S. Albee, N. C. Twining, J. B. Thayer.

National Centennial—G. S. Albee, O. Arey, H. C. Howland, James MacAlister, E. H. Merrill.

A State School Tax—James MacAlister, E. Searing, A. F. North.

Last winter the spelling school was an "institution in the land." In all the papers which have come under my eye as Secretary of the Association, during the

recent meeting, I have failed to discover a single misspelled word. Are these two facts related to each other as cause and effect? If so, would it not be well for us to catch the punctuation fever next winter, and expose ourselves to a thorough run of the penmanship fever the winter following?

Then, Messrs. Editors, it seems to be a matter which "no fellow can find out," which is the correct expression—"The committee to *whom* was referred," etc., or "The committee to *which* was referred," etc. The doctors—the chairmen of our committees—disagree. For example, Dr. Bascom says, "whom," and Supt. Searing says, "which." Will some one call the spirit of Lindley Murray to settle the question?

Yours respectfully, A. J. HUTTON.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.*

Ladies and Gentlemen:—The objects of our Association, as stated in the constitution and charter, are:

1*st.* Self-improvement of the members.

2*d.* The advancement of the cause of popular education throughout the State.

There are good evidences that the Association has been successful, in a good degree, in accomplishing its objects. It is quite impossible to bestow the labor and thought necessary to the preparation of the papers read here from time to time, without benefiting those who do it. The debates, animated and incisive, here engaged in, where man meets man, are peculiarly adapted to the teacher's needs. How many conceits have been taken away at these meetings! How many new impulses to more worthy achievements received! How many enlarged conceptions, as to the work of the educator, have been acquired? The social relations, too, the mutual interchange of thought, the acquaintances formed, are not without profit.

As to the second object, the advancement of the cause of popular education throughout the state, it is not too much to say that the Association has been largely instrumental in making known our educational wants as a state, and in securing our greatest educational achievements. I have been greatly interested in reading the records of the Association from its organization. They show that its voice has been heard in proposing, advocating, and successfully accomplishing nearly all the important measures in our educational system, which are to-day a source of pride to the state.

It was, at first, my purpose, in preparing this address, to review somewhat briefly, the transactions of the Association from its organization to the present time, but I found that not even an outline, that would be satisfactory, could be given in the few minutes it was expected that I would occupy.

I here raise the question whether it would not be wise upon the part of the Association to appoint some suitable person or persons to write its history, and present it at either the next winter or summer session, or have it printed in the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Such a history was prepared, under the dirction of the Association, by J. L. Pickard, assisted by J. H. Magoffin, and printed in the JOURNAL in the year 1859–60. At the meeting of the Association at Milwaukee, in 1860, the following resolution was adopted, relative to that production:

Resolved, That the history of our Association affords encouragement which far over-reaches the depressing influences brought to bear against our school system, and induces us to still greater exertions to elevate Wisconsin schools.

With the more recent transactions of the Association, many of us are familiar. With those of its earlier history, doubtless most of us are ignorant. The organization was effected in 1853. There was then no educational journal published in the state. There were no teachers' institutes, no county superintendency, no normal schools, no graded schools.

At the second meeting at Madison, in 1854, the Association gave expression to the following as its opinion, viz: It is highly important for the interests of education in Wisconsin—

*Delivered by J. Q. EMERY, President, before the State Teachers' Association, at Eau Claire, July 29, 1875.

First: That an educational paper should be published.

Second: To ask the co-operation of the State Superintendent, and allow him part of the paper for official and other communications.

At that meeting a committee was appointed to publish an educational journal, should it be deemed expedient. At the meeting in 1855, the Association took hold of this matter with a vigorous hand and established the WISCONSIN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. It appointed nine persons as editors, with full powers to make all arrangements connected with editing or publishing it. The Association pledged itself to its support. The JOURNAL OF EDUCATION thus established was maintained for a long time, involving an outlay some years of more than three thousand dollars. But it paid, both in a financial and in an educational point of view. As thus established, it was not discontinued until during the war, when other things than the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION went down in the terrible ordeal. To-day we have a JOURNAL OF EDUCATION well established, and second to but few in the country—a journal worthy of a greater patronage and of the earnest efforts of every member of this body to secure that patronage.

At this same meeting, in 1855, a committee on graded schools made the following report, which was unanimously adopted:

Whereas: The sytem of graded schools is best calculated to promote the interests of popular education:

1st. In adaptation of instruction and discipline to the wants of pupils;

2d. In giving teachers, by a proper division of labor, a better opportunity of acquiring and imparting instruction with less confusion from the multiplicity of duties, giving more time and attention to each class;

3d. In giving the instruction of children into the hands of female teachers, who are the natural educators of the young; and

4th. By the salutary influence of the higher departments upon those less advanced; therefore

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to petition the next legislature for the passage of a general law making provision for the establishment of graded schools in all the cities and towns of the state.

At the following meeting, in 1856, this committee, which was appointed, reported that it had performed its duty, but the legislature had not. But all needed legislation followed in due time, so that there are now in the state two hundred and fifty graded schools of two or more departments, exclusive of the twenty-four cities maintaining schools under special charters. One hundred and seven of these are schools of three or more departments. But these schools have not yet reached the highest degree of usefulness. The perfection which they have reached is, like other human efforts, only approximate. There are yet problems in connection with the management of these schools that need more satisfactory solution. E. E. White, in his admirable paper read before the National Educational Association, at Detroit, last year, stated a few of them as follows:

1. How can pupils be taught in classes, in a graded system, without sacrificing their individual powers and wants?

2. How to subject the results of school instruction to examination tests and not narrow and groove such instruction?

3. How to subject a corps of teachers to efficient supervision and not reduce them to operatives?

4. The proper adaptation of the system to the needs of those pupils who can give only a part of their time to school duties.

At the meeting in 1856, the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That the members of this Association take immediate steps for the organization of teachers' institutes in their respective counties.

The steps were taken, the institutes organized. Now hear what the Superintendent of Public Instruction says in the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION for the current month: "The present system of Teachers' Institutes we consider efficient and

vigorous, and do not see how it could easily be bettered. Other states are copying after it, a fact of which we can justly be proud."

At the session in 1857, the subject of county superintendency was brought forward for discussion in the Association for the first time. In due time a law establishing the office of county superintendent was enacted. This has ever since been a subject of discussion at our meetings, and is no less important now than it has been. The county superintendency was a great advance on the old town superintendency. That is very generally conceded. Under this system the qualifications of teachers and the character of our schools have been elevated. But is the present system suited to our needs? If not, wherein is it defective? How can the defects be removed and the needed supervision secured?

At the same session, in 1857, the question of Normal schools came up for discussion. The agitation of this question, as of others, brought the needed legislation. To-day we have three Normal schools, well equipped and in successful operation. The fourth is to be opened at River Falls the first of September. Our State Superintendent, in his annual report, pays the following well-deserved and eloquently expressed tribute: "Wisconsin can justly boast of her Normal schools as being equaled by few, and probably surpassed by none elsewhere in the Union. Whether in the noble fund that supports them, in the intelligent and conscientious management that controls them, in the capable faculties that officer them, or in the pupils that fill their attractive, spacious, and well-appointed halls, they are an honor to the state and worthy of its confidence."

A gentleman said to me, not long since, that after having traveled for considerable time in the east, inspecting Normal schools, he had come to Wisconsin to get his ideas properly balanced. Still we are not to sit down in self-complacency, supposing that we have reached perfection here. Excellent as are these schools, doubtless they can reach still greater excellence. Fundamental questions in regard to them are not yet fully settled. What is the function of the Normal School? Should they be organically connected with the State University? Should kindergartens be established in them? Is the wisest course pursued in the selection of pupils for these schools? If not, how can the means of selection be improved? Is there too much or too little academic work? Are the results of these schools commensurate with the expense? If not, why?

I have called your attention, thus briefly, to these topics to show: first, that the Association has been largely instrumental in advancing the cause of popular education throughout the state to its present standard; and second, that there is opportunity for still more persevering efforts in the future, in helping to solve the absorbing questions that are before us. One of the most eminent men of this country said, not long since, that the question before the people of the United States at the present time, is the school question. What is the function of the public schools? What the function of parochial or denominational schools? Shall the public school fund be divided? How shall all interests be harmonized?

It is not to be expected that the Association will attempt to discuss all the important school questions of the day, at this session. Such a course would leave no work well done. The experiment of last year in referring topics to committees for them to report upon at the winter session, was so successful, it is believed, as to warrant a similar course at this session.

A question in which this Association is deeply interested, and concerning which it should speak with no uncertain sound is: Shall teachers, like lawyers, physicians, etc., have the right of examination exclusively by members of their own profession? Is it not reasonable to demand that he who would assume the responsible position of examiner of the qualifications of teachers, shall himself be the possessor of such qualifications? Is it not time for us to demand that in

this matter the horse be put *before* the cart?

Another question is: Has this Association any part to take in the great centennial exposition?

What means can be employed to secure the adoption of the township system of school government?

It is well known that the legislature of last winter passed a law for the establishment of a system of free high schools, intending that it should be suited to the wants of rural districts. How can this law be made serviceable? What should be the branches of study pursued? Should these schools be shaped with the idea of serving the University as preparatory schools, or should they rather be supplementary to the common schools, having for their immediate object the making of better, more intelligent citizens?

I take the following from an editorial in the February number of the *National Teachers' Monthly:* "There is strong opposition to the high school in many quarters. The objection to it on the score of expense, has a plausible appearance to many minds. Then comes the politico-theoretical objection that the state has no right to go beyond the rudiments in educating the citizen. But by far the most formidable hostility is that of denominationalism—on the part of Catholics, the opposition is against a system of education that is secular from beginning to end; on the part of many Protestant sects, the hostility grows out of the fact that the public high school is supplanting the seminaries by which the denominational colleges were fed in the palmier days of sectarianism. On the whole, the opposition is dangerous enough to place the friends of popular, free, unsectarian education somewhat on their guard."

Besides the enactment of this free high school law, the legislature made a liberal provision for the growing wants of our present prosperous University. Women were made eligible to all school offices except State Superintendent. School districts of more than one thousand inhabitants were freed from the limitations as to the amount of tax they can levy and collect for school purposes. Towns and school districts were authorized to purchase text books and loan them to the pupils or furnish them free. I doubt not that under the head of "Educational Intelligence" we shall hear that the schools throughout the state are in a prosperous condition. Thus, it will be seen, the past year is not fruitless.

In its unselfish efforts to advance the cause of popular education, the Association has bestowed but little attention to perfecting its own organization. At the last annual session a committee was appointed to report upon the matter of procuring a charter for the Association. That committee reported at the meeting last winter, it will be remembered, that the records show that a charter was once procured. That charter is to be found in the special laws of 1855. It will thus be seen that the Wisconsin Teachers' Association has been chartered for 20 years.

The Wisconsin JOURNAL OF EDUCATION for August, 1874, commenting upon the Association, says; "There can be no doubt, we think, that it would be well to effect some change in its organization and mode of working. Why should it not, like the State Agricultural Society, for instance, have its permanent and transient characteristics; its life members and its yearly members. * * We think the time has come for the Association to have a more solid and more permanent organization. To this end we think it would be well to make its officers more permanent. * * It is in vain to expect the good results that ought to flow from an organization of teachers, as we now have, with a change of officers, of purposes, of methods, and of programme each year. There is no proper consecutiveness of ideas or aims, no consciousness of an organic and permanent existence."

It is hoped that the topics upon the programme for consideration at this session will prove to have been judiciously selected. Discussion may shed a good programme for consideration at this session will prove to have been judiciously

to lend its counsels to those needing them? Is the matter of teachers' examinations and state certificates just as it should be? If not, what is wrong? Have we a "State System of Education?" If so, is it properly adjusted? Is there anything lacking in it? Are there any redundancies? If so, what? Is the "District School of Curriculum" suited to the highest interests of the pupils and the state? If not, what changes should be made? Do the interests of education require that there should be a state school tax? Have we a state library system? If not, why?

All these topics seem worthy of our attention and careful consideration. And the records of the Association in past years give us reason to hope that if we do not effect any immediate reforms in those things which seem to need them, we may at least be instrumental in creating a public sentiment that shall in time lead to their proper adjustment.

THE COMING TEACHER.

BY HELEN M. BINGHAM, MONROE.

[Essay read before the State Teachers' Association at Eau Claire, July 29, 1875.]

Prof. Bonamy Price has said that nowhere in the world is better teaching, a more accurate conception of the nature of its functions, a more scientific yet agreeable method of handling young people, a more thorough sympathy between the minds of the teacher and the taught, to be witnessed than among the female teachers of the United States.

The New York *Tribune* remarks that "it will do no harm also to remind them," meaning female teachers, "that in spite of Prof. Price's praise they have not yet reached the highest educational standard." This comment suggests the questions how much have they to grow before they reach that standard? how, when they have attained it, will they appear? in brief what is to be the character of the coming teacher? Before attempting a partial answer to these questions let us glance at the work that will be required of the future educator.

The highest standard requires that teaching shall be more a work of assistance, less an attempt at cramming. It requires that when a child asks a question the teacher shall lead him so to observe or so to reason that he may himself evolve the answer. When this standard has been reached the teacher will tell the children little; they will find out and tell her much. Education will be a course of self development directed in the begining by another. There will be little learning by rote since, as an eminent writer has justly said, "To know by heart is not to know." Moreover, the exercise of learning by rote has a tendency to stupefy all faculties except the memory, and, if persevered in for centuries, as has been the case in China, to put an effectual stop to all progress and make the accusation of being wise beyond what is written a reproach. We whose opening minds were touched by the blight of the multiplication table rejoice that wiser methods are already in vogue and that children now find profit and pleasure in the construction of multiplication tables. But there is still too much mechanical work, too little investigation among our pupils. Ask a girl if she plays the piano and you are told "Oh, no! I'm forgetting all I ever knew for I haven't taken lessons this long time." We are more unfortunate than the music teacher. It is so extremely improbable that our pupils have the mental habits which make study agreeable that no one ever asks if they are continuing school studies. Our system of education is really a system of repression. Instead of leading out and strengthening the faculties of our pupils, we put them to sleep. A pupil educated in the natural way, advancing always from the known to the unknown, as curiosity leads him, becomes a reliable and an independent worker; his powers are so developed that their activity is pleasurable and his education is continuous with life. From a general adoption of rational methods may be expected the evolution of genius. Alexander Agassiz tells his pupils that the merest tyro in science would be disgraced by treating a scientific problem

as our statesmen dispose of the questions of the day. When we have statesmen whose education has been a self evolution, the laws framed by them, like the laws proclaimed by scientific men, will be the expression of the knowledge attainable in their time.

When teachers cease to act like the coachman who gave his too spirited horses chloral, and then whipped them into the required pace, education will be more rapid, and there will be time for studies now impossible. There will be no high pressure system. A teacher will discriminate in her requirements of pupils according to the time since their ancestors lived in trees; and while she gives needed assistance to all pupils, she will give most attention to those most promising, as a gardner gives more attention to a plant about to flower than to one whose fruition is far in the uncertain future.

As self evolution is the highest standard of intellectual education, so self control is the highest standard of moral education. Moral education is something more than a knowledge of the moral code. It is not a process by which little Judases may be filled with virtue. It is the evolution of the moral nature. That the moral nature is as educible as the intellectual, is proved by the success of reformatory institutions. At the Reform School of Ohio two thousand boys convicted of crime have been received since 1858, and all but a very small percentage have been discharged apparently reformed. The same amount of power, says Dr. Buchanan, which can elevate criminal youth to respectability, can elevate the youth of virtuous families to pre-eminence in virtue. At present, except in a few places like the school referred to, there is no attempt at systematic moral education. Though we can sympathize with that abolitionist who took a proslavery paper because afraid to put his abolitionism to the test of reading a weekly paper devoted to the advocacy of his views, yet we frequently give children a taste for certain sins by our tirades against them. Others we preach into a morbid conscientiousness, and still others we harden by unnatural punishment. If a boy fails to learn his lessons and is dropped from his class in consequence, this and the disapprobation of his mates and teacher are recognized by him as natural penalties of his conduct. He regrets that he did not heed the warnings of his teacher; he sees the necessity of self control, and thenceforth avoids the course which has brought disgrace upon him. But if, as often happens, the teacher, anxious to prevent his falling behind his grade, has scolded him or detained him after school to learn his lessons, he has been robbed of the natural and salutary consequences of his conduct. The responsibility of his progress has been shifted to his teacher. His punishments seem to be results of chance, which may let him offend to-morrow with impunity, but which to-day has made his teacher, now become his enemy, cross, and given her leisure to torment him. He loses sight of his own fault, and longs for manhood to free him from restraint. In the good time coming that moral education which, except in unusual cases, contents itself with indicating duty and seeing that every violation of duty is followed by its natural penalty, will not only make better and happier children, but also better men; for children accustomed to their own moral guidance will be better prepared than they could be by any other course to exercise proper self control amid the temptations that manhood brings. In that time, too, there will be such a physical education as will make the best intellectual and moral education possible.

To do this work which we have failed to do, there is a teacher coming. But of what does her superiority consist? Is not the coming teacher fed with the same food, hurt with the same weapons, subject to the same diseases as a teacher now is? If you poison her will she not die? If she is like us in so much, in what does she differ from us? To get a negative answer to our question is easy. A teacher of positive nature acts upon certain minds like a magic lantern so arranged as to make two images of the

same object, one image being much paler than the other. Of the mental photographs, one represents the teacher as she is; the other, in the background like the shadowy figure in the so-called spirit picture, as she would be without certain seeming faults. Holding the second in his mental vision, the observer tells what in his opinion the coming teacher ought to be. But the coming teacher is no dim reflection. On the contrary, she herself makes a shadow which some few have seen. There are even those who have had occasional glimpses of her behind her shadow. There are men who, in their high watch towers where they have watched for years, are constantly peering through the clouds in search of some sign by which to mark her progress. Often the clouds obstruct their vision, sometimes she has disappeared behind some lofty peak; but ever and anon there comes a flush of sunshine, and, on a long and rugged pathway strewn with stones and turned aside by mountains and by rivers, they see her hopefully overcoming obstacles, and steadily pressing forward.

That the reports of our observers vary is not surprising. Looking through different telescopes and from different stand-points, they sometimes see different things; but we are concerned only with those points whereon there seems to be a general agreement. Education, now the only necessary qualification for a teacher, claims the first attention of those who come to ask what these far-sighted ones have seen. We are told that the coming teacher is a student, marked as such by nature, and ever true to her vocation. Though a student more of nature than of books, yet she has appropriated, as one uses and throws away crutches on a toilsome journey, a number of books that would appall the greatest book-worm among the teachers of to-day. She is a lover of knowledge, loving it not for the certificates that endorse it to teachers of the present time, nor wholly because it is a preparation for her work. Loving it for its own sake she seeks it diligently, but with a humble spirit; never afraid to say, "I do not know," never unwilling to give up old theories when they are found inconsistent with the truth. A new study is a joy to her; though she may not comprehend it as Newton is fabled to have understood geometry, with the first reading, yet she feels within her the power to fathom all its mysteries. Each of her faculties is a delicate instrument, of which she has learned the use. Her interests and sympathies are as wide as the world's activities. There is a breadth to her acquirements which makes them seem universal to her pupils, who find in her whatever is lacking in themselves. Even for her younger pupils, a teacher of her culture could not do so well, for though they do not catch from her a knowledge of reforms and dative cases, they do catch the effect of them upon her mind and heart. Following these announcements of the observer to those below around his tower, the voice of Dr. Holmes' nice young man is sometimes heard among the listeners saying, "Hope there'll never be a logical woman; never saw one and never want to see one." Down from the tower comes the answer, stopping not to tell the compensatory charms of the coming teacher, but saying only, with the coldness of the upper air, "Fear not; you will never see her. One of the conditions of her coming is that you have passed away." The coming teacher is a thinker. One of the first things learned concerning her is that she is mistress of whatever she attempts to teach. There will be no need in her day of books like those of which Mrs. Browning made her heroine read a score or two, books which prove that though women cannot think, they may teach thinking.

But, not to praise the absent too much, let it be remembered that the coming teacher is entitled to no more praise for her attainments than is a faithful teacher of 1875, for the preparation she has made. Teachers, with clergymen, physicians, lawyers and editors, can do no more than mark the flood-tide of public opinion. They are the best reflection of public sentiment, but they create this sentiment only as the Ohio makes the Mississippi. They are the servants of the people; they

can do only such work as the people wish done; they are good or bad, as the people require them to be. A hundred years ago each man was to some extent his own blacksmith, and the teacher of his own children. As population increased, division of labor became possible; better work was demanded, and with the other improvements of urban life, better schools came into being. The improvement of schools is, however, less rapid than it should be. Division of labor should bring leisure; but the characteristic of the new life is competition, and men (no longer able or willing to let their work stand upon its merits), spend what should be their leisure time in work that pays for advertising; general culture is of course impossible; education is believed in only blindly, and, since there is no popular standard by which to measure a teacher's worth, cheap teachers and a little cheap knowledge are the material used to make schools of, and we, the teachers of to-day, have to say with widow Bedott, "There's something the matter with the most of us; we're all poor creturs." Those who see the coming teacher look forward to a time when this age of competition has given place to an age of co-operation. They describe a state of society in which labor is economized in the highest degree. That the washing, ironing, sewing and cooking of a whole town are in the future to be done in buildings set apart for those purposes, and by skillful workers who bring to their help all the knowledge the world affords them, is no more surprising to us than a sight of present factories would be to our grandmothers ot spinning notoriety. Looking at that time, a spirit of co-operation is seen simplifying each one's work, and raising it to a higher standard. Each one engages in the occupation for which he seems most fit, and all men are interested in his success. Co-operation contributes to intellectual development by giving men new interests, and by giving them leisure to cultivate those interests. It gives parents time to continue their own education and time to watch their children's growth. A result of this general culture is a demand of the people for teachers fitted for their profession, and then the coming teacher stands before them.

There will be many persons in that day, however, of liberal and thorough education, who would yet by no means be tolerated as teachers in the public schools. General culture is but one of the many qualifications of the coming teacher. To this must be added a love of humanity unknown to many scholars. Again, there is more than love in the ability to teach, as is attested by many mothers whose conscientious attempts to teach their children result in making their children unhappy and averse to books, and in the loss of their own patience. In the coming time it will be regarded as a mark of maternal love and self denial that such a mother entrusts her children to the Kinder Garten, and refrains from all attempts to teach. The teacher is born, not made. There must be in the coming teacher an innate love of teaching; a strong educational instinct that delights in developing virtues and talents wherever found. With this love there comes a clairvoyant power to seize the means by which this development may be effected. But even natural talent is not enough. Because an untaught boy has a passion for an engine and an ambition to make it go, would seem to us who travel on the railroad no reason why the company should let him run the engine. Rather than go abroad with such a guide we would stay at home. Is it any less dangerous for a child to be started on the journey of life by a teacher who knows nothing of the mind entrusted to her care except that she likes to make it work. The coming teacher believes that by as much as the mind is more delicate than any instrument of man's devising, more productive of good when rightly evolved and directed, more fraught with evil when the course is wrong, by so much should the preparation of the teacher exceed that of any other worker, and she has developed her talent by special study and long training for her work. She is guided by no foolish rule, like the Ro-

man law, teach a boy nothing he cannot learn standing; or like our common law, teach nothing you cannot teach standing, but by those psychological laws which govern the evolution of mental faculties.

Still another test the coming teacher must pass, and a failure here sends many of her sisters to work in callings less responsible and sacred. The foundation of her culture must be moral sentiment. Few men have had Aaron Burr's ability to teach. His biographer says there was no time in his life when he had not some protege under training. He instructed his servants and his friends, and always freely sacrificed both time and money to their improvement. He promised to teach a young lawyer more in one year than could be learned in ten years in an ordinary way, and he kept his promise. Yet Burr's pupils were failures. They copied his defects, his system of life, illustrating once more the old saying—a teacher must be that which the pupils are desirous to become. A teacher cannot conceal faults. Every positive character impresses its faculties on those around it. If the moral character of a teacher is defective, the evil is increased with every increase of her power as a teacher. As Horace Mann has said, a few fundamental ideas give every mind its character, and determine the nature of all future thoughts. Believing this, we cannot wonder that in a time when men give more thought to the development of their children than to that of their Durham cattle, the character of her under whom some of these ideas may be found, is subjected to careful scrutiny.

The one qualification, without which all others avail not to make the coming teacher, is perfect health. Though she has been so long upon her journey, her fresh and happy countenance and elastic step show a pleasure and an exhileration like that which Hawthorne was describing when he said he felt as though he had slept for fifty years. Her looks and motions show that mere existence is a joy to her. Happiness is in her eye. and her frequent laugh is musical and merry. She has stronger muscles and a larger waist than her sister of to.day. Her nerves are better covered, and she never has the headache. She is a deeper breather, a larger eater, a sounder sleeper, and a steadier worker than any teacher we have seen. The sources whence these changes come are two: first, a widespread observation, through many generations, of the laws of health; second, a long line of educated grandmothers, for though we tire a little when biographers give the "great-mother" of their hero praise due her father only, and credit for greatness never manifest in her, yet we cannot, until the coming woman comes, appreciate the whole benefit to women of educated mothers.

Marvelous to all observers' eyes appear the beauties and the grace of the coming teacher. Here, however, our descriptions are somewhat meagre. Our observers tell us of the poetry of motion, and of a wondrous natural beauty, heightened by artistic dress; but being men, their reports of dress and beauty are too general and too improbable to be relied on. By the charming beauty of her face and voice and manner, she wins all hearts, they say, and while she holds them willing captives to her magic witchery, she educates them. Remembering those those grand ideals of the various phases of woman's life—the goddesses of the old mythology—they liken the coming teacher to that ideal maiden whose father was the all-powerful Jupiter, and whose mother, according to the oldest legends, was the wisest of all the deities. The realization of all that was best and most attractive in the strong and beautiful Minerva, who was worshipped as the patron of education, of the industrial arts, and of all intellectual progress, is seen, they say, in the coming teacher.

A word now as to the age of the new Minerva. Col. Higginson has shown, in reply to Prest. Eliot, that certainly in some cities, probably in all, the average length of service of female teachers is greater than the average length of service of male teachers who make teaching a stepping-stone to other occupations.

Because of the long preparation required of her, the coming teacher must enter upon her work at a later age than a teacher of to-day. She is not, on this account, more likely to desert the educational army. On the contrary, teaching is her chosen life-work. This does not mean that she will teach without cessation from the time she gets her first certificate until her grave is ready. Like college presidents she may sometimes have leave of absence for travel, study, or whatever duties call her. Her salary must be large enough to allow occasional intervals of rest as well as other means of improvement, though some have heard her speak of salary as the smallest part of the reward. Those who make this report tell of something stranger. They have seen her, they declare, tell her age truthfully and even proudly, as though each year were the representative of something to be rejoiced over, something attempted, something done. If the middle aged women of the coming time were like some of the faded, jaded, doleful, common-place creatures who inhabit the earth in this stage of life, perhaps an approach to their time of life would be concealed by the coming teacher; but happily this phase of humanity is incident only to this age of hurry and worry. Indeed, it should have been remarked before that the coming teacher herself frequently appears as a middle aged woman. Many, many times she has been seen coming with all the power and grace of the ideal maiden, but with Minerva's coldness, softened by the love that shone in the face of the ideal mother of Greek mythology; whence it has been supposed that to all her other qualifications for her work, the coming teacher may add the experience of wife and mother. To this beautiful and noble mother, whose love makes all children hers, and whose power elevates the race to a higher intellectual and moral plane, let me say good-bye with a parphrase of Madame Roland: O, coming teacher, what weak creatures of fancy are called by thy name! May no one whom they offend have, on their account, less faith in thee!

THE OPEN DOOR—II.

BY REV. CHAS. CAVERNO, LOMBARD, ILL.

[Address delivered before the Platteville Normal School, June 22, 1875.]

Of poetry, what shall I say? That great, tangled wilderness, having rigid, gnarled trunks, to be sure, but so garlanded, festooned, ivy-twined, bespangled with color and perfumed. You know what elimination is. You will have to practice it here. Instead of trying to be omniverous, you had better cultivate the severest taste at the outset, and refuse to drag your mind over what seems below your ideal. If you will digest and assimilate one of Shakespeare's dramas, say Hamlet or Julius Ceasar, so that you can think in its language and imagery, can speak it "trippingly on the tongue," in common parlance, you will not thereafter be likely to be caught by chaff; but will know the difference of your own selves between it and wheat, when you see it. If I were to give any general rule respecting poetry, I should say, "Read less and commit more." Confine your reading in poetry to what you wish to commit.

You recollect Wordsworth's sonnet—

"The world is too much with us, late and soon,
Getting and spending we lay waste our powers;
Little we see in nature that is ours."

In practice we want to draw on our poetical resources "to point a moral or adorn a tale." But little have we seen in poetry that is ours. When we want "to point a moral or adorn a tale" we have nothing to do it with. It is of immense value everywhere in life, to have a wide range of spontaneous poetic quotations. You get liberty in this only as you begin early in life to lay in store the jewels of poetry. If you were to put one-half the time you can spend in reading poetry into committing it, you would soon learn what to read. What did not stamp your own mind as worthy of remembrance, would not long tax your patience.

Science is the great watchword now, and it is a good one. We ought to know the things and the forces with which we are in contact in this system. We ought to be good botanists, entomologists, geol-

ogists and comparative anatomists. The door is just as wide open to knowledge in these departments in one place as in another. We ought every time we look at a flower to see something beside its beauty of form and delicacy of coloring. We ought to see its place in its family; we ought to see its particular intent and meaning in the system in which it has place—for everything has intent, and meaning, and purpose, whatever may have been the method of its origin. The world only assumes true *beauty* as you see its exact *order*. But what failures most people make out of their lives in this respect. Here we are in contact with the *vegetable* world all our lives. It is at our hand. It cannot run away from us, and we do not have to shoot anything in it to bring our game down. Yet you find wrecks of botanists everywhere—old stranded weather-worn hulks through whose open ribs waters and sands roll back and forth at their idle pleasure. You can meet every day with people by the score, who say they once studied botany, but have forgotten it.

> "Since they were so soon done for,
> One wonders what they were begun for."

Forgotten it—how could they? If they ever got an idea, with all the world every time they looked at it appealing to them to put their idea in practice, how could they resist that appeal? Why do people begin to live a little in such a great department and then die out?—when it is a good deal easier to live than to die. It certainly cannot cost as much pain to satisfy one's curiosity as to crucify it. The highest joy of traveling is comparative botanizing. Yet most people, even after they have, as they say, studied botany, in traveling sum up all their sensations as they come in contact with unfamiliar plants by saying that *they look* new.

Out of the practice of just two principles you can make yourselves a new life as you come in contact with Nature—these principles are observation and classification. One thing quite annoying to a thoughtful mind, is the *blind* following which two or three British scientists have secured for their scientific views. It is not the *following* that one objects to, but it is the *blind* following. There is as much superstitious reverence for a few *scientific* theorists to-day as ever there was for the priesthood in the dark ages, and it has precisely the same foundation—absolute ignorance of the matters upon which assertion is made. Most people only throw off one superstition to take on another. The power of the priesthood has gone overboard, but the reverence for authority in science to-day is just as abject as it ever was in religion; simply because people follow their scientific file leader, without themselves being capable of passing judgment on the rudiments of the matters treated. If we follow anybody let us do it because we know we are right, not because he says so.

Just now there is a great deal of attention given to Mr. Darwin's theory of the origin of species. To have comprehension of this matter is not at all beyond the range of the capacities of any young man or woman. I think any one can see the force of that theory who has knowledge of botany enough to know what the rose or the sunflower family means, or of natural history to know what the carnivorous family of animals signifies. The comprehension of a very few simple relationships and distinctions would lay the whole matter before you. And why should you not have an ambition to understand of yourselves the merits of a controversy on which the most intelligent minds are exercising thought?

I can conceive of nothing more delightful to grow old upon, than two or three or more languages. Why could not an old maid add to the joys of her knitting work and her cat, or an old bachelor to the comfort of his pipe and his dog, the grammar of a new language? The philological instinct is one that increases in acuteness and strength with age. It is quite true that in the struggle to get into position in life, we can with difficulty carry along the languages with which we started in our youth. But let us not rust out as we grow old. The quiet evening of age, as it draws on, will give us some chances for improvement we have not

had in the bustle of our career. But while life lasts we want to keep something always ahead—to have something new before us to take up. If we ever had any aspirations for scholarship, why should age make us surrender them? Philology is a department in which we can keep perpetually young. If what Max Mueller makes Goethe say is true, that "he who knows only one language knows none," we ought to have an inspiration to get one language by the aid of the side-lights which other languages can throw upon it.

Philosophy! Philosophy!! Please not to die before you work out into Philosophy. Listen not then to your own indolence, nor to the ignorant criticisms of two or three over-much praised physical scientists. Philosophy may be a troubled sea, but "Bate no jot of heart or hope, but still bear up and steer right onward."

Once on its waters you can no more quit it than a sailor can quit the deep.

> "How charming is divine Philosophy!
> Not harsh and crabbed, as dull fools suppose,
> But musical as Apollo's lute,
> And a perpetual feast of nectared sweets,
> Where no crude surfeit reigns."

"Ah!" said Mr. Choate, going home with his volume of metaphysics, "Here we have meat. I can give you no better direction to working out into this realm than by telling you to read Coleridge. And when I say read Coleridge, I mean read not in him, but read *him*. Read, not extracts, but all that he ever wrote,—the whole seven volumes of the American edition of his works. If you were to do this you would be conscious that you knew more than you did before, and that there was a good deal more yet to know that you had never thought of. But here, as I said in respect to the higher periodical literature, you will read much of which you will see actually no meaning. You will have to wait for the light to come from the other side, and then, ten to one it won't come at all. Never mind—read. The more unsolved problems there are lying around you, the better. They are a perpetual challenge to exertion. The first thing is to know that they are there. Plunge into them if you want to see them. You will do better to follow the lead of one mind like that of Coleridge through the whole context of its possessions, than you will to study any of the leaders of philosophic thought fragmentarily. It is better to have the whole view of a master of seeing like Coleridge, than the partial glimpses that you may get from many minds. One philosopher well mastered is a positive possession. Several looked into, merely cancel each other and the residuum is nothing.

This is precisely the advice Senator Carpenter gave to law students in, I may say, that famous Washington address, a few years ago. He said, take some master of law, and read him up entirely—see how the law lay on his mind. Take Marshall, or Story, and read not only their elementary treatises, but chase them through every recorded syllable of their thought. Read every decision they ever wrote. 'Tis thus that you get a whole man, and if he is a great man you get a possession. What I have said respecting Coleridge I would say with reference to Carlyle. Read him, and read him through. Then you will be prepared to wrestle with all schools of thought. It requires some resolution to look these great realms of thought out of countenance. But it can be done. But to do it you must not be lost in what Carlyle calls "general solution in aimless discontinuity," but you must *map out a course* and hold yourself to it with will and energy. "The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars, but in ourselves, that we are underlings."

For all young people there is an open door to something to do. This is certainly true with reference to young men. They at least can say,

> "No pent up Utica contracts our powers.
> For the whole boundless universe is ours."

The world's industry is open to man. Young men can always find something to do and something that is honorable—if not precisely what they would like, yet something that needs to be done, and for the doing of which they and the world

will be the better. Where young men shall take hold of the labors of life makes but very little difference. One thing needed to be done is as honorable as another. One position or occupation is as fertile in opportunity for self-development and for well-doing to man as another. It only requires the wit to see what privileges there are about us, and the tact to utilize them to make one situation as pleasant as another. To a young man it may be said—Enter in anywhere, "He that reapeth receiveth wages." But in my assumed audience I have young women. Their industrial sky is supposed to be not quite so clear. Still woman was made for work as well as man. And it is as unfortunate for her to be removed from the pressure of necessity in this direction as it is for man. With young women, however, the question of industrial opportunity is not quite so clear as with young men. I have but little light to give on these questions of opportunity. Society is feeling its way toward the light, and one individual has about as clear a perception of objects in the glimmering as another. But altitudes of spirit are worth something to us while difficulties are settling. Because the world is not quite right it will not pay to become sour about it. O young women, let not your souls be always exercised to querulousness and complaint on the industrial condition of women. It is slow work that men and women together can make, even when both *mean* to do right, to solve the problem of humanity. Once in a while, young women, look around to see how far you have come in the upward march of civilization. And, once in a while, feel and express thanks, that your lot is cast in these days and not in the days of old. Prophetesses and Queens "have desired to see the days that you see and have not seen them." There are few industries from which woman is now debarred by law or by public sentiment. There is a great deal of discussion now as to the desirability of woman's being an active participant in politics. Is the matter worth the attention given to it, so far as the *employments* of women are concerned? Very few men live by holding office. Very few men are hired to do any kind of work because they vote. It is a cursed day to a *man* when he comes to regard office-holding as an industry, and it would be thrice cursed for a woman.

The higher we advance in civilization the less do we make of politics. Other avenues take up our activities. If you do not believe this, just look at the difference between the North and the South of our nation. In the South attention is given to nothing but politics, and where politics are in, industry and civilization are out. It is the raw and ignorant emigrant who is inspired with such a rage to vote. *Good men* try to reduce the problem of having anything to do with politics to its lowest terms, and it seems a little singular that as good men are going out of politics, women should be so anxious to go in. Bear in mind that this applies only to politics as an *occupation.* Good men try to fulfill their duties to government, but it is a poor class of men who seek to enter politics as a *career.* It is no legitimate or profitable opening for *man* or woman. Politics will never give you a biscuit more to eat nor a shoe more to wear, and if it did it would be a sad day for you. If you must live by your work, you will do it by fitting yourself for some of the industries that our ever widening intellectual and material civilization demands. Though all things may not have found their proper level, I congratulate you on the open door there is for fairly remunerative reward, reward that will enable you to live wholesomely, dress as respectably as is demanded by an honorable society, and that will secure to you the best intellectual advantages of the age.

With thankful, brave and hopeful hearts, take up your work in education, art or handicraft. You have an open door for SOMETHING TO BE.

Young men and women, you are given a being which you are charged to train, with all skill, to every excellence. You want not only to know something, and do something, but to be something. You need to be thought well of by others, not

so much as to be able to think well of yourselves. The holiest ambition is to make the most of ourselves. These are low ambitions—to be thought wealthy and to have our name trumpeted about by fame. Conscious of intrinsic worth, we can afford to think lightly of these things. But consciousness is a thing that will not lie. To be conscious of a certain condition we must *be* it.

It is better to have good health than to be a leader of the politics or of the fashions of the town. And how much better than to be "clothed in purple and fine twined linen, and fare sumptuously every day," is it to be clear of mind and pure of heart. There is nothing selfish about such self-culture. It is the natural craving for development that inspires desire for it. The more we are developed in every normal faculty and power, the richer we are toward God and our fellow men. The greatest boon we can confer on society is to take into it, in our own persons, the noblest and highest results of self-culture, for then we distribute the wealth or a true and noble being on every hand. But we crisp and shrivel whatever we come in contact with when we are base and mean.

Look on life, look on existence, with face to the front. Say what you will about any particular theories of evolution, it is certain enough that the fundamental law of the universe is progression from a less to a more perfect state.

> "Lo on a narrow neck of land,
> 'Twixt two unbounded seas I stand."

Which way shall I look; to the past or the future? To that from which or to that toward which the universe rolls? To the crude beginning or toward the finished end? To the germ or to the ripening fruit? How is it that you call the man whose face is toward the past and the old reverent? Has not God as much interest in the to be as in the has been? What is the past past for, unless to be by and done with? Why is he not reverent who opens his windows and worships toward the to come, as well as he who worships toward the past? If the fundamental law of the universe is progression, is not h the only reverent worshipper who, forgetting the things that are behind, stretches out to lay hold of the things that are before? Men are anxious about the standards. Whose standards? The standards of the dead or the standards of the yet to live? The standards of those to come are surely worthy of as much reverence as the emblems of those who have gone before. There are always the coming after whose shoes' latchet the going before are not worthy to unloose. But we know the standards of the past, and we do not know those that are to be. Ah! there is where will lie our high prophetic value. We are to be seers—to feel out what must be before it is. Here lies the merit—though not having received the promises, to see them afar off, and to be persuaded of them and to embrace them. True enough, all "old things are not over old." True enough, all things new are not good, but if progression be the law of the universe, the greater good must lie in the direction of the *new*. There must be richness and eliminations, but the new residuum will be better than the old. While it is not possible here to give in detail what the future will unfold with which we must be in alliance, it is possible to indicate attitudes which we should preserve toward whatever may be unfolded. We can be alert, inquisitive, hopeful, generous, sympathetic. One of the most painful sights I know of is the young man who deliberately takes up the role of reaction and retrogression—who is nothing unless a critic or a cynic—who plants his heel and puts his force into resistance to the forth-reaching of human endeavor—who adds so much more to the inertia to be overcome, the incubus to be hurled off before men can step into the freer possessions that lie before them. In that attitude there seems to me that sort of sin to which forgiveness can be applied neither in this world nor the world to come.

To the front face there is an open universe for time and eternity, and that rightly apprehended is the joy of existence. Some one, whose name I cannot give you, but who deserves a high place

among the very select of the earth's sages, when told that he was about to die, said joyfully, "Now then for the grand secret." That seems like grasping the problem of life aright. We shall do well so to set and school our being, that we can approach the problems of eternity with reverent, trustful, yet with inquisitive eye.

The Practice of Teaching, according to the Laws of Mental Science.

BY HENRY S. BAKER, RIVER FALLS.

PHYSIOLOGY.

The practical importance of this study is very great, and it should be taught to every child, at some period of his education. As it involves the faculty of memory, chiefly, it is best taught by the method recently given of teaching history, somewhat modified. The following is the order I use:

1. Let one of the class write the topics, as divided in the text-book, upon the board, in plain, large hand.

2. Let two or three of the class give in writing, upon the board, the whole matter under given topics.

3. Ask the meaning of all the uncommon words in the lesson, and if not understood, give the definition in the plainest possible terms. This is absolutely necessary.

4. Topical recitation from the board. Ask no questions. If one fails, give him the book and let the topic be copied by him on the board, and read to the class.

5. Let those who wrote topics upon the board read them to the class.

6. Criticise whatever deserves it, of all written on the board.

7. Call on the one who wrote the subjects or topics on the board, to give a brief summary of the whole lesson by topics.

In addition to the above, which will apply to nearly every days work, some other things are useful for variety. When the lesson is about the heart, eye, or any other special organ, send some one to the board each day to draw a sketch of it. One old enough to study it, can draw well enough to show whether his ideas are clear upon the shape and position of the parts.

If you should possess a skeleton, make the class handle it, and describe the parts. Colored plates are very useful. I find nothing so beneficial as procuring the eyes, hearts and whatever can be procured from butchers and dissecting them before the class, with an explanatory lecture. They differ little from the human parts except in size.

In learning the lessons on bones and muscles and others, make the class point to the given bone or muscle in their own persons. If you think they know these, ask them to place their hands on their hearts, and you will be undeceived.

The teacher should give tabular statements of such parts as the bones upon the board, and drill the class until they can do likewise.

Add to this written monthly examinations, and an occasional composition upon some physiologist topic, either in class or general exercises, and a class cannot fail to be interested and profited.

Above all do not neglect the board. A wise man said, "Whatever gets into the mind through the eye never gets out."

Shun long technical words, at least until a class knows what the *thing* is, and the Saxon for it. "Flesh-producing food" is better than "nitrogenous." "Retrograde metamorphosis" is not so good as "decay," for every day use. No text book is fit to use that does not give at least one-third of its space to hygiene. But this is understood, only by first knowing the corresponding anatomy and physiology. As soon as the class learns the anatomy and physiology of the bones or muscles, they should at once learn the hygiene of the same, whether the text book has the right arrangement or not.

THERE is none made so great but that he may both need the help and the service, and stand in fear of the power and unkindness, even of the meanest of mortals.

TO BE deprived of a person we love is a happiness in comparison to living with one we hate.—*La Bruyere.*

Waste of Labor in the Work of Education—II.

BY P. A. CHADBOURNE, L. L. D., PRESIDENT OF WILLIAMS COLLEGE, MASS.

[An address delivered before the American Institute of Instruction, at North Adams, Mass., in August, 1874; also before the Connecticut State Teachers' Association at New Haven, Conn., October 22, 1874.]

TO PREVENT WASTE, STUDIES MUST BE ADAPTED TO THE AGE AND DEVELOPMENT OF PUPLS.

Do not charge me with undervaluing early education. It is a great thing for the child from the first to breathe a literary atmosphere, and in rare instances the crowding I have spoken of makes real prodigies of learning, of which John Stuart Mill was an example—"a fine example," some would say; a sad warning, I should suggest.

In all the early years, say to the age of 14, the studies should be light—just enough to keep the appetite for learning keen—while the physical system has no strain brought upon it by over-confinement or hard mental labor. In these early years, the simple studies of spelling and reading and the simple forms of mathematics, in which the large majority of students who apply for admission to college are wofully deficient, should occupy the chief attention as studies in the class-room. The outlines of geography and history should be so fully given that the reading of the newspaper shall be intelligent work, because the scholar knows where events transpire; and such training in natural history should be secured that the senses may be on the alert for every new form and phenomenon in the natural world. By those who have the opportunity, French or German might be learned orally, without the details of grammar. If this is done, with no more labor than is often wasted in teaching grammar and some parts of mathematics, when the scholar is utterly unprepared for the work; if this is done, and a taste for choice reading secured, at the age of 14 or 15 you are ready to begin the continuous work of education in earnest, so that the student shall not only acquire knowledge rapidly, but shall remember the processes by which he acquires it. And this remembrance of the process is hardly less valuable than the knowledge itself, especially to one who is to engage in the work of instructing.

WASTE FROM WANT OF PROPERLY GRADING SCHOOLS.

The waste of labor that comes from imperfect classification of schools is so apparent that all understand and deplore it. This evil in country schools cannot be completely remedied, although much can be done by the skill and tact of the teacher in bringing together all the elements that can be combined, and in providing, in the most efficient manner for the exceptional studies that often range from the primer to rhetoric and physics. In schools that are classified, there is often no little waste in the excess of machinesy and multiplicity of rules. We criticise here with great caution, for every military man, and every presiding officer in a deliberative body, and every experienced teacher will tell you, and tell you truly, that many rules have borne the test of time as a means of rapid and efficient labor that, to the inexperienced, seem useless or burdensome.

RULES OF DISCIPLINE SHOULD BE FEW AND SIMPLE.

But, after all, there is too much tendency in large, well-classified schools and colleges, to make the machinery of government cumbersome, so that the rules become such a weight upon the student as to depress the mind and repress that spontaneity of individual action so essential to the healthy growth and development of the intellect. Just as soon as the student feels that, instead of being dealt with personally, he is only part of a great machine, that is controlled and worked as a whole, much of his individual responsibility is lost, except to do his part in the machine. Personal responsibility, constant, as though no other student were associated with him, is the true condition of development; and, unless you secure that condition fully, much of the student's time and strength is wasted, and your own strength is wasted in managing the machine, which, when the school dissolves, is worthless. Machine-

ry is as essential in a school as in a cotton mill, but the simplest machinery possible that will accomplish the work, is best in both. Simplicity and directness are doubly essential in a school, because you are dealing with living beings, and it is the contact of the living teacher with the pupil in the whole process of education, that arouses activity and makes every germ of knowledge quicken to the fullest development. This is no plea for lax government; for the teacher who cannot govern promptly and perfect ly wastes a large portion of his time and strength directly, and does mischief enough to the character of his pupils to overbalance any learning he may impart to them.

WASTE FROM TOLERATION OF OLD ERRORS IN TEXT BOOKS.

Another source of waste is the copying of old mistakes and absurdities in text-books and methods of instruction and government, simply because they are venerable and have been practiced or recommended by those who have been famous in the work of education. We can hardly illustrate this point fully without danger of troubling some one who has written a book, or who still clings to some school tradition that might be denounced. We must be content with stating the principle and giving one or two illustrations.

The Linnæan system of classification of plants was a purely artificial system, understood to be so by its great author, and yet such was the prestige of a name, and so persistent the custom of copying, that this system held its place in our text-books and schools long after it might have been displaced by a natural system that represented botanical truth.

ABSURDITY OF THE OLD CUSTOM OF EARLY MORNING PRAYERS IN COLLEGES.

The early morning prayers, as formerly conducted in many colleges, were an example of the absurdities even wise men will accept from custom. Students were called out of bed before it was light on cold winter mornings, to hurry to a chapel without fires, and then pass to the recitation room to recite by the dim light of oil lamps.

The ill temper of the students found expression in rebellions and attacks on chapel and recitation rooms. And yet it was very difficult to change this old custom, handed down from the dark ages, a custom injurious to health and good morals, and opposed to common sense.

WASTE FROM WANT OF FURTHER CLASSIFYING STUDENTS IN COLLEGE.

There are two sources of waste in educational labor over which the teacher has but little control. The first is the natural stupidity of scholars, who find their way into every school and college. It is no waste of labor to spend time on dull scholars, if we attempt to teach them only what they are capable of learning and what it is essential they should learn. They are entitled to extra labor, as are the deat and blind. But the mischief is, stupid students are always forced, by their parents or by their own over-estimate of their powers, into classes where they are a dead weight upon the movements of all connected with them. The exhaustion that comes to the faithful teacher from daily lifting and pulling and encouraging and driving such students is known only to those who have toiled long and seen their efforts as useless as attempts to warm snow or make the blind see by describing colors. Book-learning is not the *forte* of all men. And while some men attempt only those things for which they are well fitted, others are constantly attempting those things for which they are entirely unfit. Their life is a failure because they never understand their own capabilities. Almost every college has students who would make good business men, good specialists in some science, perhaps, but for whom an attempt to acquire a college education means a great waste of time and effort on their part, a waste of strength and patience on the part of their instructors.

WASTE FROM IRREGULALITY OF ATTENDANCE OF PUPILS.

There is a second hindrance from parents that intereferes with every teacher's work; this is their encouragement to irregularity in school duties. It is mar-

velous what a number of marriages and special occasions occur in some families, as an excuse for taking sons and daughters from school. The sons of some families are almost constantly absent at the beginning of the term. The parent sends an excuse, which every teacher feels is no excuse. The student is injured by the loss, and the whole class feels the effect. If the lessons are missed or made up there is waste of labor for the teacher, which can illy afford it. His work is hard enough at best and thus to load him with extra work, or depress him by rendering his labors, term after term, defective, through the caprice of the student, and the ignorance or inconsiderateness of the parent, is a misfortune to him and a shame to the offenders.

WASTE FROM WANT OF ENTHUSIASM ON PART OF TEACHERS.

I have but two points more to make, and these relate especially to the teacher. There is a failure to secure energetic work and the best results, from lack of enthusiasm. Without this no teacher can have the best success, however learned and faithful and hard-working he may be. Enthusiasm is the heat that softens the iron, that every blow may tell. Enthusiasm on the part of the teacher gives life to the student and an impulse to every mental power. It gives the work of the school-room a quickening impulse, and by this impulse makes the student a gatherer wherever he goes. It gives to the student independent power; power to go alone. When this is accomplished there is no more waste in lifting, dragging or driving. It was the enthusiasm of Linnæus that filled his lecture-room with students from all parts of Europe, and then sent them over the world to gather new treasures for themselves and their master. It was the enthusiasm of Agassiz that clothed the commonest things with new life and beauty; that charmed every listener and transformed the aged and the young, the ignorant and the learned, into joyful learners. Another man, with the same learning, the same devotion, and equal labor, might not accomplish one-tenth as much, because he failed to kindle that interest that quickens every mental power, and lights the fire of latent genius, which, once kindled, reveals to its possessor truths far beyond the range of those whose minds have never been touched by this life-giving power of enthusiasm. It is said one loses this enthusiasm after awhile. Then he ought to stop teaching. If he cannot grow enthusiastic presenting the plainest rules of arithmetic and Latin for the fiftieth time *to a new mind*, then he is unfit for his work, and should spend his strength on stone or clay, which can only yield to force, but never take form at the mere glow of enthusiasm in the worker.

WASTE ARISING FROM NEGLECT OF MORAL TRAINING.

But, last of all, there is a waste that brings loss and sorrow to the world. This is neglect of moral and religious instruction in connection with intellectual training. Who are the men who are causing humanity to blush for their dishonesty and corruption, poisoning the world at the same time that they are cheating it and astounding it? Why, men who are educated, but who despise the slow methods of honest gain and reject the old-fashioned morality of the Bible. There must be a searching for the foundations; and that instruction or that education which does not make prominent *justice* as well as benevolence; *law* as well as liberty; *honesty* as well as thrift, and *purity of life* as well as enjoyment, should be stamped by every true educator as a waste and a curse; for so it will prove in the end.

We understand the importance of our work, the value of mental and moral culture. We see the inviting fields that call the student to labor, and the waiting world that needs his time and the strength of his best cultured powers. Let us see to it that no old notions, no routine of duty, no shrinking from work or responsibility shall spoil our harvest, so that at last we shall look back on a waste of energy and time. Let us work while the day lasts, with our might. Let us train our students for the *study*, for the *family*, for the *state*, for the *world*. If we send

them forth with the ability to *labor*, with a love of *truth* and *justice*, and with a spirit of *self-sacrifice*, our work will be a blessing to them and to the world.

CAN WE SPEAK ENGLISH?—In our daily coversation we disfigure it with all varieties of slang, masculine or feminine, as the case may be—one as bad as the other. We disregard its delicate shades of meaning, we do all we can to deprive it of all force by our careless use of its terms, we load it with provincialisms and foreign phrases, and then we scornfully turn our backs upon it as if it were an old worn-out servant who may have been of use to scrub our floors or sweep our barn-yards. We hire foreign nurses for our children, so that the first words they utter shall be either a French or German dialect, and we boast of the fact that these children talk only French or German, and "do not understnd one word of English."

Esau sold his birthright, but he hardly considered it a good bargain. We are not so wise as he yet, for we have not yet reach-the recognition of our terrible blunder by the mourning which showed that he was in reality not so foolish as he seemed. At present we are glorying in our mess of pottage.

For is this not literally all that we have as the result of our barter? I do not mean to speak disrespectfully of the German language, for we owe it too much to be so childish. Noble in thought accurate in construction, musical in its flow, it opens up to its thorough student a mine of wealth which can not be equaled by any modern language, and our own owes its vitality and strength to self-same stock. I would not be unjust to the French tongue, which masters so-called exact sciences, and bends itself with so much smooth facility to every varying mood of thought or fancy.

But what German or what French do our children gain from the nurses and inexperienced teachers to whom they confided in their first nine or ten years of life? At most they can learn but baby-talk, for that is all they are capable of receiving. It is in vain to supply words where ideas do not exist for which they are needed. And even in this what inaccuracies do we not have, what interpolations of English terms picked up from their companions! We might as well—as we do in too many cases—leave the child to be talked to by only an ignorant Irish girl, and then hope to hear her expressing herself in pure English. But meanwhile the child learns English, so called, for she does this in spite of all prohibitions and orders not to use the useless, the unclean thing. And what kind of English does she speak? It is unnecessary to answer the question, for we need only listen to the talk of the children around us, in our schools and in our families, to hear ourselves.—ANNA C. BRACKETT, in *Harper's Magazine for September.*

THE OBJECT OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION.

The first thing to be determined is, the true object of the higher education. Is it, as some would seem to suppose, purely ornamental, a thing valuable only as far as it gives a man extra polish and elegance of mind, a mere luxury, with no practical bearings upon the every-day duties of common, busy life? Such an idea is preposterous. Of course, ornamental culture is something to be desired; its acquirement confers honor upon the acquirer; facilities should be furnished for its attainment. But true education, including all this, goes far deeper. Its purpose is to develop the mind; to strengthen the thinking faculties in every possible direction; to render the acquisition of new knowledge easier and surer; to increase the student's resources; and to render him better fitted for dealing with the useful affairs of the world. Such an education is never completed; it grows throughout a lifetime; it is self-propagating; its most valuable features are acquired outside of schools and colleges. All that a college can do is to help lay its foundations, by training the mental power for subsequent use. Which course of studies best carries out this purpose? —PROF. CLARKE, *in Popular Science Monthly for August.*

How Mountains Are Sawed in Two.—The contracting or shriveling of the earth causes the rocks near the surface to wrinkle or fold, and such a fold was started athwart the course of the river. Had it been suddenly formed, it would have been an obstruction sufficient to turn the water in a new course to the east, beyond the extension of the wrinkle; but the emergence of the fold above the general surface of the country was little or no faster than the progress of the corrosion of the channel. We may say, then, that the river did not cut its way *down* through the mountains, from a height of many thousand feet above its present site; but, having an elevation differing but little, perhaps, from what it now has, as the fold was lifted, it cleared away the obstruction by cutting a canon and the walls were thus elevated on either side. The river preserved its level, but mountains were lifted up; as the saw revolves on a fixed pivot, while the log through which it cuts is moved along. The river was the saw which cut the mountains in two.—*Powell.*

How to Earn a Living.—We are constantly in the receipt of letters whose writers want to be told how to earn a living. In stating what they are willing to do to earn a living, the writers usually omit to state that they are willing to come right down to real hard work—to that absolute drudgery without which nothing of any account was ever achieved by anybody. And work must be done as work; and the worker must not be ashamed to have it understood that it is work, and that he is doing it because he has to do it in order to get a living. No one can earn an honest living on false pretences. Unless one's heart and mind are in his work, it is not apt to be successfully done; nor will he grow strong and prosperous in doing it. The man who believes in hard work, and is willing to be known as one who earns his living, if he is also intelligent, honest and economical, is the man who is almost sure to earn it, and to get on in the world, so that after a time, he can rest from his toil, and enjoy the fruits of his industry and thrift.—*New York Ledger.*

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

DISTRICTS.

Q. Section 1 says "no district can or shall embrace more than 36 square miles of land," but this town embraces more than 20 townships and has only six districts. How is this?

A. Laws operate in the future, not in the past. Districts formed since the law was amended, in 1868, cannot contain more than 36 sections. Districts previously formed are not affected by the law, though embracing a hundred sections.

Q. Our district was formed more than three years ago, and has maintained a school ever since, but the supervisors, as we now find, put more than 36 sections into the district, contrary to law. The territory in excess is not inhabited. Must our district and all its previous action be considered null and void, and must we begin back and do all over again?

A. No; the territory of the district is one thing; its organization, corporate existence, and work as a district are quite another. The supervisors can cure their error and bring the district within legal bounds by an order of alteration, or by forming a new district if there is need. No harm can have ensued from their oversight, exeept that some taxes may perhaps have been collected on land not legally in the district.

Q. We have no map of our district, and the town clerk refuses to furnish one. No district in town has an order of formation, and the town officers assess the lands to different districts according to their own notions, and with great partiality. What can be done?

A. The simple and peaceful remedy is for the people of the town to adopt the town system. But in the mean time you can compel the town clerk to furnish a map of each district to its clerk, and to keep a map of all the districts in his office. (Sec. 58.) The order for the formation of every district should also be filed in his office. Town officers may be proceeded against by *mandamus* to compel performance of official duty.

Q. A new district was formed and the town board refused to determine the amount due to it from the old one, saying we might build our school house with our own means. Is there any remedy?

A. The remedy is *mandamus*.

Q. Suppose the district refuses to raise and pay over the amount determined, what is the remedy?

A. The remedy here too is *mandamus*, and not *assumpsit*. (3 Wis., 333.)

Q. Can the district clerk, or the district board call a special meeting without request of five legal voters, and would the business transacted be legal?

A. The proper way to call a special meeting is on request of five legal voters of the district. When a special meeting is held, the call should be asked for and should be read. If no such call appears to have been made as the law provides for, the voters might reasonably choose to dissolve the meeting and go home. But being assembled, then if *due notice* has been given, and the object of the meeting has been duly specified, it cannot be held that to act on the business proposed would be illegal. The direction as to the five legal voters is prudential, and *should* be observed, but cannot be considered as absolutely mandatory.

Q. If an annual meeting adjourns to hear the report of a committee, can the adjourned meeting transact any other business than that to be reported on?

A. The adjourned meeting has all the powers of the previous meeting, of which it is simply a continuation, except that the power to elect officers expires in ten days. The specific reason for the adjournment does not cut off other business. Very important business might have been overlooked at the previous session. Nevertheless, advantage should not be taken of an absence of voters caused by misapprehension as to the power of the adjourned meeting.

SUB-DISTRICTS.

Q. Can a sub-district, under the town system, embrace more than 36 square miles?

A. No, nothing becomes legal under the modified system which, by prohibition, was illegal before.

DISTRICT OFFICERS.

Q. Two members of a school board of a district in this city (which is under the county superintendency), resigned last night. How shall their places be filled?

A. By the "town clerk," that is, the city clerk, to whom the reports of the district officers are made. (Sec Sec. 50, School Code, and Sec. 20, Chap. V. Rev. Statutes)

Q. Our old treasurer was re-elected, but failed to file a new bond within ten days. The board disagreeing did not fill the vacancy. The town clerk then appointed the old treasurer. Was that not illegal?

A. It was simply a question of expediency. If the old treasurer failed to file a bond because he could not get a bondsman, that would be a good reason for not appointing him; but if the failure was a mere inadvertence, if he was clearly the choice of the district, and had served and given general satisfaction, the town clerk did wisely, as well as acted legally, in appointing him.

DISTRICT BOARD.

A. If a district votes to build a school house costing a certain sum, but votes no tax, is the board authorized to go on and build?

A. The vote to build should be followed by a vote to raise the requisite tax, but if this is omitted, and the board goes on and contracts to build, the contract binds the district. The tax may be voted at any time at a special meeting.

Q. Could the board in the mean time borrow money?

A. Not unless authorized by the district.

Q. Can a board issue orders and raise money on them, at a discount say of ten per cent?

A. No authority is given to a board to do this. The legitimate way to raise money, if needed in advance of its collection on tax, is to have the district authorize a loan, under sections 114-115. Loans may be effected from the trust funds of the state, under Chapt. 60, Gen.

Laws of 1873. Application should be made to the *Land Commissioners*, at Madison.

THE SCHOOL HOUSE.

Q. The site was leased for our school house on condition that it should be used only for school purposes. Can the board open it for meetings under the law passed law passed last winter?

A. Not while on the present site, on the terms of the existing lease. (Const., Art. I., Sec. 12.)

Q. Can the board allow the school house to be used by a "Grange" or other secret society?

A. The law of last winter authorizes the board to allow its use for "religious meetings, temperance meetings, or any other meetings which in the judgment of a majority of the board will aid in disseminating intelligence and good morals among the inhabitants of the district." The law does not prescribe that all such meetings shall be public.

FREE HIGH SCHOOLS.

Q. Must the high school board expressly *authorize* the hiring of teachers (Sec. 3) before it can be done?

A. In section 7 the board is invested with the power and required to perform the duties of an ordinary school board, and among these duties is that of hiring teachers. The provision in section 3 seems, therefore, to be superfluous.

Q. I am puzzled by the provisions as to the treasurer, and by the comment on the law as just published, that the board is to appoint one of their own number. Please explain.

In the comment on section 6, after the words, "it must be inferred that he is to be chosen by the board from their own number," were inadvedently omitted the words—"where no other provision is made." If a single district establishes a high school, the district board will be the high school board, the treasurer included. If two or more districts in different towns, or if two or more towns, establish the school, then unless the board appoint a treasurer from their own number, there seems to be no way of filling the place. For a city with a board of education, the city treasurer would perform the duties.

PERMITS WITHOUT EXAMINATION.

Q. Is a teacher who holds only a "permit" to be considered a "qualified" teacher, and can the school taught by her be reported, and draw money, if it is found that she was not examined?

A. The "permit," i. e., the limited certificate held by the teacher, is legal evidence that she is "qualified;" the hiring was legal, the school is legal, and may be reported and draw money. At the same time, if it be the fact that the superintendent issued the document without any examination whatever, he is to be censured, and something more if it is his habit.

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT'S ALLOWANCE.

Q. Is the allowance of one or two hundred dollars for stationery, postage and printing (authorized by section 95), for the term, of two years, or for a year?

A. It must be understood to be for the year, for the reason that the law provides, in the same section, that the salary should be so much *per annum*, payable quarterly, but afterwards provided for a *per diem* also.

Q. Is the certificate of the superintendent as to the amount necessary, to precede or follow the expenditure?

A. Logically it would follow; but in practice it is very likely that superintendents some time in office certify in advance.

Q. When is the allowance to be paid?

A. As the superintendent has to pay out money from time to time for these expenses, he ought not to be obliged to wait long for it, and as his salary is payable quarterly it is reasonable that the allowance should be paid as often.

Q. Must a bill of the expenditures be made out and audited?

A. This is not prescribed; the certificate takes the place of this.

Q. Is the allowance payable in cash or "orders?"

A. The superintendent is entitled to the money, but when the order for payment is given him he may find the treas-

ury empty, and thus be obliged to wait, or dispose of his order at discount.

Q. Can a county superintendent hold an examination in a city in his county not under his jurisdiction?

A. There is no reason why he should not, if it is the most convenient place for the teachers of one of his examination districts, or for a general, supplementary examination.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Q. What is to be done with school money not distributed?

A. If it is an extra amount received by mistake, it should be returned. If it is left on hand because not called for by the treasurer of a district, it is to be added to the amount distributed the next year. (Sec. 61.)

Q. If a teacher is notified to omit school for a day, that the town board may use the school house, is she entitled to wages for that day?

A. Yes, unless she waives her claim or consents to make it a day of vacation.

Q. Can a town vote a school tax at $1 a scholar, and cause it to be assessed and collected in the several districts on that basis?

A. The town may decide that the tax in the aggregate shall be on this basis, i. e., if there are 600 scholars $600 shall be raised; but the tax must be assessed and collected according to the assessed valuation of property, on the whole town alike.

Q. Last winter we had an extra teacher, who heard a number of classes in a small room fitted up for that purpose. Does that make our school a graded school?

A. It does not.

Q. Does the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION subscribed for by a town clerk belong to him or to the town?

A. If paid for out of public funds it belongs to the town, and should be passed over to the next incumbent with other books and papers.

IF a man has any religion worth having he will do his duty and not make a fuss about it. It is the empty kettle that rattles.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

SOME GOOD OMENS.

It is with pleasure that we notice the reorganization of two of our old, but hitherto not very successful, private educational institutions—the "Wisconsin Female College," at Fox Lake, and the "Wayland University," at Beaver Dam. In their reorganization, several sensible and noteworthy changes have been made.

In the first place, those pretentious and high-sounding misnomers, "College" and "University" have been discarded. The "Wisconsin Female College" is hereafter to be known under the more modest and appropriate title, *Fox Lake Seminary.* "Wayland University" wisely asks to be henceforth known as *Wayland Institute.* Hereafter no pompous fraud is to lurk in their very names.

In the next place, even greater wisdom has been exhibited by the Fox Lake authorities in throwing wide open to both sexes the doors hitherto barred against one. No longer are the boys there to suffer from the unjust discrimination of the past. Algebra and Geometry, Botany and Chemistry, Latin and Greek, are to be hereafter taught in that pleasant village irrespective of sex. Freedom and equal rights have won another victory, of which we trust the Seminary will remain an imperishable monument.

Again, an avowed and leading object of these schools is to furnish good preparatory instruction. They offer to fit young men for either the classical or scientific course in college. Beaver Dam also advertises "a thorough academic course for those who do not intend to enter college." Fox Lake adds "a Normal course for those who wish to qualify themselves for teaching." Beyond this they make no pretense. There is no intimation that they desire to do college work.

All this strikes us as commendable, and these schools have our best wishes for their prosperity and usefulness. Nay, more, they have the expression of our conviction that there is a broad and rich and hitherto almost unappropriated field

before them, and hence that they are needed. Their success is assured if their management is reasonably judicious.

Believing that the best interests of the State are in entire harmony with the highest success of these and a dozen other like institutions in other counties, we venture to suggest some conditions upon which alone that success can be assured.

First, and indispensably necessary, is a fair endowment for each. There must be an assured income sufficient to keep a competent and permanent corps of teachers. Such an income cannot be secured from tuition alone. It is idle to expect this in these days of numerous and well-equipped public schools. All experience is against it. Yet while it is a fact that such schools cannot find sufficient support in tuition alone, it is also a fact that, with good teachers, tuition can be depended upon to meet the *chief burden* of expense. A thoroughly good and useful Academy, if fairly located and wisely managed, can find good support in tuition receipts supplemented by the income of an endowment fund of not more than $50,000. A fund of one-half this amount, or say enough to secure the salary of the Principal, will in many cases free the management from all pecuniary anxiety, and secure a beneficent and permanent educational force, compared with which the outlay in endowment is insignificant.

Another condition of success is that the school be practically unsectarian. It were better, we believe, if it were also nominally so. A moral and religious atmosphere should pervade it, but it is undesirable that the control should be in the hands of any one sect or denomination. A school which proposes to be a common benefit will find its greatest prosperity in confining its activities to intellectual culture, and such moral and religious culture as forms the common ground upon which all denominations rest.

If unsectarian, with sufficient means to employ competent and permanent teachers, and to furnish such other equipment as good schools need, large prosperity and usefulness would attend the establishment in our state of a score of other private Seminaries, Institutes or Academies exclusively devoted to thorough Academic instruction. Instead of bewailing the decadence of the old New England Academy, with its many admirable features, and supposing that only in some system of state bounty is it to find renewal of life, let its friends courageously look to private endowment as the source whence it may obtain new vigor. Thus already has New England put upon an enlarged and secure basis some of her own Academies which otherwise would have fallen in the competition with the public system. Thus can and should and will Wisconsin and other Western states yet do. There is room. The harvest is great, and the laborers at best far too few and weak. Let us here repeat some words from the last Annual Report of the Superintendent:

"However much the state may do, there will always be room for well directed and sustained private educational enterprise. It should not be the policy of the state to discourage such, but rather the reverse. As the state becomes more populous, the field for both public and private endeavor widens. The further prosperity of the public schools does not necessarily involve diminished success for private schools. Where the field is so broad, and is becoming constantly broader, friendly rivalry between state and denominational (or private) institutions may easily be beneficial to both, and to the common interests of all classes."

WE have still half a dozen copies of the "Addresses and Proceedings" of the Detroit meeting of the National Educational Association, which we will sell at wholesale cost price, $1.25 each, and the postage, if sent by mail. We understand that at the recent Minneapolis meeting the volume was in demand at $1.75. This is the last chance to procure this valuable collection of able papers on the great educational topics of the day, at a trifling cost.

THE EAU CLAIRE MEETING.

We devote a large portion of our present issue to the Secretary's report and other papers of the recent meeting of the State Association at Eau Claire. The report is appropriately made the leading article. It is the record of a most agreeable and profitable session, held among a people fitly characterized by one of the resolutions as long to be held in remembrance for their "overflowing hospitality." Our one source of personal regret was that illness allowed us to be present only during the last day of the session. We had lost two-thirds of the thoroughly "good time" of the whole.

For the success of the last two meetings of the Association much credit is due to the excellent management of President Emery, whose good taste and judgment furnished each time a varied and attractive programme.

The President's Address, elsewhere printed, is a very appropriate, practical and suggestive paper, which we commend to general perusal. The influence of the Association in advancing the cause of popular education throughout the state is clearly exhibited, and constitutes a most encouraging omen for further effort. He says: "I have been greatly interested in reading the records of the Association from its organization. They show that its voice has been heard in proposing, advocating and successfully accomplishing nearly all the important measures in our educational system, which are to-day a source of pride to the state."

This we believe to be strictly true. It is, moreover, as it should be. Who ought to be better qualified to see the defects in our educational system, and to devise remedies therefor, than the cultured members of this Association of teachers? Who understand educational problems so well? Who are so fully acquainted with educational thought and progress in other countries? Now that so many educated, able and influential men are permanently devoted to the work of teaching, and that in consequence Pedagogy is beginning to rank with Law, Medicine and Divinity as one of the true professions, the world begins to feel that, like Law, Medicine, etc., Education must be entrusted to the specialists who thoroughly prepare for it. Those unlearned in the Law do not venture to controvert the opinion of able lawyers. The judgment of skillful physicians receives the implicit confidence of those unacquainted with medicine and surgery. So now it is beginning to be tacitly admitted that only those who have made educational problems a careful study are competent to have charge of educational interests, both local and general.

Thus, an Educational Association like our own, by the divine right of its special intelligence, originates and accomplishes desirable educational reforms. The people naturally look to it for light and guidance in this direction. What it has approved they will be inclined to adopt. It has, therefore, an important mission—a high responsibility. Great things are within its grasp.

Some of the yet unaccomplished reforms and unsolved problems which are hereafter to claim its attention, are indicated in the above mentioned address. In respect to some of these, it is time for the Association to take definite and pronounced action. The best interests of the state demand it. Such action, we doubt not, will be taken at the Executive Session in December, and important additions to the School Law secured as a result. We refer, in particular, to a uniform state tax for school purposes, and to a State Library System. These are everywhere meeting with favor, and must ere long be secured by legal enactment.

THE Polk County *Press* says the Normal Institute just held in that county was more largely attended than any previous one, showing increasing interest. The conductor, Rev. A O. Wright (who was assisted by C. W. Fenlason), lectured also on two evenings, on the First Three Centuries of the Roman Fmpire, and the First Three Centuries of the Christian Church.

EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

Last month we printed an article on "The Progress of Education in Russia," which doubtless many of our readers perused with interest. It contains much valuable and curious information, and is another evidence of the enterprise and usefulness of the Bureau of Education at Washington. It appears that Russia is making decided progress, educationally, although she is suffering from some great disadvantages which render such progress difficult. Not the least interesting part of the article is that referring to the "itinerant schools" of Norway and Sweden, by which education is made substantially universal in those far-away northern lands.

We shall print in our next number a still more interesting and even marvelous account of the progress of popular education in Egypt at the present time, derived from another source. It is truly wonderful how the school-master is marching on around the globe in his career of conquest. His victories are Napoleonic, and the best of it is that no Waterloo defeat awaits him at the end.

PENNSYLVANIA HELPING RUSSIA.—Hon. A. G. Curtin, Minister to Russia, in a recent lecture, says the Pennsylvania school system has been practically adopted in that country, and H. L. Dieffenbach, editor of the Bloomsburg (Pa.) *Columbian*, adds the following incident:

"While the writer was quietly seated, about 1860, in the Executive depertment at Harrisburg, where he then held official position, his room was entered by Dr. Thos. H. Burrowes, the Superintendent of Common Schools, and a stranger, who was introduced as an attache of the Russian diplomatic legation at Washington. Their business was stated to be to inquire the reason for the adoption of certain provisions of our school law. After a few preliminary words, the writer was surprised by the Russian drawing from his pocket a pamphlet copy of our school laws and going through it section by section, and frequently sentence by sentence, inquiring the reason for their adoption, and noting all the answers on the margin, in short hand. The explanation given was that it was designed to educate the children of the serfs of Russia, and that the Pennsylvania school system had attracted the attention of the government of that country as the best in the world for the purpose, and that it would probably be adopted. We had often heard vaguely that it had been adopted, but now we have the information direct and positive from Governor Curtin that such is the fact. Pennsylvania justly stands at the head of American states for educational facilities afforded her sons and daughters, but her own people will be the last to appreciate the fact."

The distinctive features of the Pennsylvania system which commend it to universal favor, are a vigorous county superintendency (not elective and so the football of politics, but appointive by the local school officers, subject to the confirmation of the State Superintendent), and the town system. When will Wisconsin show as much good sense as semi-barbarous Russia?

WE publish this month the conclusion of Mr. Caverno's excellent address to the students of Platteville Normal School, presented at the close of the school year in June last. While this address is practical to the last degree, it is also exceedingly interesting reading; there is not a heavy or dry paragraph in it. Mr. Caverno is an original, vigorous thinker, and a racy, pungent, and at times quaint writer. His advice to young people—with nearly all of which we heartily agree—is all the more valuable as coming from one who leads by example as well as by precept.

We regret that the length of the address compelled its publication in two parts, but advise our readers to give themselves the pleasure of a re-perusal of the part printed last month before commencing this concluding portion.

THE proceedings of the Association, President's Address, and other matters, crowd out the usual variety this month, for which we will make amends next month.

THE Superior *Times* speaks very favorably of the success of Mr. Geo. H. Howard, as the Principal of the public schools of that city, and of his assistant, noticing especially the proficiency made in reading and arithmetic.

THE STATE EXAMINATION.

At the recent examination for State Certificates, held in this city, August 11–14, and conducted by Professors Rockwood, Viebahn and Beck, as the Board of State Examiners, twenty-five applicants were present, eleven more than last year. As the result of the examination the Board recommended the granting of permanent certificates to four, and five years' certificates to two of the candidates. In accordance with this recommendation the State Superintendent has issued certificates as follows:

Unlimited Certificates to

Kirk Spoor, Brandon, Wis.
Charles F. Ninman, Watertown, Wis.
Thomas F. Frawley, Madison, Wis.
Albert E. Chase, Hartford, Wis.

Limited, or five years' Certificates to

Warren J. Brier, Baraboo, Wis.
Albert Wood, Prairie du Sac, Wis.

TOWNSHIP SYSTEM.—In a recent circular, Supt. Waggoner, of Richland county, calls attention to this system, and says:

Its important advantages are:

1. To diminish the aggregate school expense, and establish a uniform rate of taxation for the town.
2. To enable each child in the town to go to that school which is most beneficial or convenient for him.
3. To dispense with a large number of school officers, and secure better supervision.
4. To dispense with summer terms in very small districts and allow the children to attend some other school.
5. To enable a town to maintain a high school to which all who could pass a specified examination would be admitted, thus stimulating the pupils of the lower schools to greater exertion.

MR. FRED TELKE, secretary of the Town Board of Prairie Farm, Barron county, notices some want of punctuality in attendance, but says: "Our schools are otherwise in a flourishing condition; we have let the contract for five new school houses, all to be finished this fall ready for a winter school. The township system of school government is giving general satisfaction."

FALL INSTITUTES.

The following is a substantially full and accurate list of short Institutes to be held during the months of September and October, and indicates county, place, time, duration, and also the conductors:

BY PROF. GRAHAM:

Oconto, Oconto, Aug. 23, 1 week.
Kenosha, Wilmot, Aug. 30, 2 weeks.
Fond du Lac, 2d, Fond du Lac, Sept. 13, 1 week.
Calumet, Chilton, Sept. 20, 2 weeks.
Kewaunee, Kewaunee, Oct. 4, 1 week.
Winnebago, Omro, Oct. 11, 1 week.
Brown, Depere, Oct. 18, 1 week.

BY PROF. MC'GREGOR:

Marquette, Packwaukee, Sept. 20, 2 weeks.
Crawford, Mt. Sterling, Oct. 4, 1 week.
Waupaca, New London, Oct. 11, 1 week.
Iowa, Mineral Point, Oct. 18, 1 week.
Grant, Patch Grove, Oct. 25, 1 week.

BY PROF. SALISBURY:

Columbia, Rio, Sept. 20, 2 weeks.
Dodge, 2d, Mayville, Oct. 4, 1 week.
Dane, 2d, Oregon, Oct. 11, 1 week.
Washington, Hartford, Oct. 18, 1 week.

BY PROF. THAYER:

Trempealeau, Whitehall, Sept. 13, 1 week.
Pepin, Durand, Sept. 27, 1 week.

BY W. A. DE LE MATYR AND DR. FRENCH:

Jackson, Black River Falls, Aug. 30, 2 weeks.

BY DR. FRENCH.

La Fayette, Darlington, Sept. 13, 1 week.

BY A. F. NORTH:

Racine, Rochester, Sept. 20, 2 weeks.
Milwaukee, 1st, Oak Creek, Oct. 4, 1 week.
Adams, White Creek, Oct. 18, 1 week.

BY I. N. STEWART:

Sheboygan, Plymouth, Aug. 23, 1 week.

BY PROF. BECK:

Rock, 1st, Evansville, Aug. 30, 1 week.

BY A. EARTHMAN:

Buffalo, Alma, Aug. 30, 1 week.

THE Wayland Institute, at Beaver Dam, opens Sept. 14, under A. S. HUTCHENS, A. M., as Principal. Addresss T. B. PRAY, Secretary, for further information, at Beaver Dam.

CIRCULARS in regard to the new opening of the Fox Lake Seminary may be obtained of Rev. A. O. WRIGHT, Principal elect. Address him at Fox Lake.

WE see that Prof. J. WERNLI, formerly in the Platteville Normal School, is engaged in Institute work again this season, in Iowa.

SUPT. A. A. SPENCER announces a six weeks' Normal Institute for Green Lake county, at Princeton, commencing September 14.

J. P. BRIGGS, late Superintendent of Kenosha Co., takes the place of M. T. Park, in Racine, who takes charge of the model school at Oshkosh.

Prof. A. O. WRIGHT takes charge of Fox Lake Female College, which will hereafter have a male department.

L. D. HARVEY goes from Mazomanie to Sheboygan.

Prof. J. H. TERRY takes charge at Menomonie.

W. J. WAGGONER, Superintendent of Richland county, notices the success attendant upon the plan so changing the ordinary school terms in most of the county districts, as to have vacation in July and August. He says less than 30 districts had school the past summer in these months. The practice of a two months fall and a two months spring term (besides the winter term) is rapidly growing in favor.

EARLY in the session considerably over one hundred teachers were enrolled for the Normal Institute now being held at Viroqua, Vernon county, under D. McGregor and A. F. North. We opine that the teachers in that somewhat isolated locality will obtain a "Scotch blessing" of a novel and most acceptable character.

WE learn from the River Falls *Press* that Prof. Albert Earthman, at present in charge of the Madison School in St. Paul, Minn., has been elected Professor of Music, Drawing, and will also have charge of the department of Calisthenics, of the Normal School.

"HONOR to whom honor is due." J. F. Nichols was re-elected treasurer of this school district at the late school meeting. Should he live to complete the term for which he was elected he will be "twenty-one"—having served in that capacity *twenty-one* years. We doubt whether there is another instance of the kind on record in Wisconsin.—*River Falls Advance.*

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

ELEMENTS OF INFINETISEMAL CALCULUS. By JAMES C. CLARK, A. M., Professor in William Jewell College (Mo.) Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

We notice two excellent features in this manual: the subject is presented in such a way as to enlist the interest and confidence of the young student at the outset, and it is treated with a philosophical fullness not always found in similar treatises. This, in the end, will be found more valuable and satisfactory to both pupil and teacher. Numerous examples are introduced, with applications to both analysis and geometry. The mechanical execution of the book seems to be faultless.

PLAIN AND SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY AND MENSURATION. By A. SCHUYLER, LL. D., Professor in Baldwin University (O.), and author of various mathematical works. Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

This treatise was prefixed to the author's work on Surveying and Navigation, which appeared in 1873, and which we noticed favorably at the time. Its separate publication will be convenient for those who do not wish to study surveying or navigation. The trigonometrical functions are discussed in a less abstract and therefore more readily comprehensible manner, we think, than is usual, and mensuration is happily treated.

FIRST LESSONS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. By THOS. W. HARVEY, A. M., author of Grammars and Readers. Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

In accordance with the increasing demand for simpler and more rational methods of teaching our language to children, the author adds this little book to his language series. We think he has succeeded admirably in presenting the old bug-bear of composition writing "in

a natural and attractive manner." What was perhaps looked upon as a hateful task, will become under this ingenious plan, a thing of delight, to both teacher and pupil. While "grammatical terms have been used sparingly," still more could be spared, we think, till the child reaches a higher book; but we will find no fault. The reformation of an old and strongly seated abuse is not to be effected at one step. See advertisement, 3d p. cover.

APPLETONS' JOURNAL.—This sterling weekly is devoted to Popular Literature, Science and the Arts. The design of the publishers, which is to furnish a periodical that shall afford the reader, in addition to an abundance of entertaining popular literature, a thorough survey of the progress of thought, the advance of the arts, and the doings in all branches of intellectual effort, is well carried out. Engravings are employed when they serve to illustrate the text, but never merely as pictures. It gives much more reading matter for the same yearly subscription than is contained in the largest of the monthly magazines. Subscription price $4.50 per annum, including postage. Address D. Appleton & Co., publishers, New York.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND QUERIES.—This unique Periodical is edited and published by W. D. Henkle, Salem, O., is issued monthly for ten months of the school year, at $1.00 a year, postage prepaid. Specimen number 25 cents, and the remaining nine numbers for 75 cents additional. Although it began its existence so recently as last January, it already circulates in thirty states and territories, and has received the cordial endorsement of educational editors and authors, college professors, State, County, City and Village Superintendents, and teachers, in all parts of the country. It serves, in a manner, the place of many costly books of reference. Its extensive range makes it certain that each number will contain matter valuable for all classes of teachers, from the professor in the college to the humblest teacher in the district school. No earnest and studious teacher can afford to do without it. If he has a difficulty in school management, Grammar, Mathematics, Logic, Rhetoric, Physical or Metaphysical Science, Greek, Latin, French or German, let him state it in *Educational Notes and Queries*, and he will doubtless receive aid from some teacher who has surmounted the difficulty. Back numbers will be sent to new subscribers, in order that they may have the first volume.

CHILDS' PATENT FOLDING DESK is said to mark an era in school furniture. We have not had an opportunity to examine it, but Hadley Brothers and Kane, who advertise it in this number, give "twenty-five reasons for its superiority to other desks."

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WISCONSIN

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EDUCATIONAL BACKBONE.

BY E. B. WOOD, OSHKOSH.

[Paper read before the State Teachers' Association, at Eau Claire, July 30, 1875.]

There is no grander thing in all the universe than a strong, decided, self-reliant, independent character. Strength of will, decision of purpose, independence of action and thought, these form the lever that moves the world. Without these, all other traits are of little worth to their possessor or to the world about him. The weak man, no matter how good his purpose, is a cipher. He cannot carry out his plans, nor can he inspire others with his feelings. He can neither resist temptation nor lead others away from it. The strong, decided man, and he only, can so act and so impress himself upon his time, as to effect any important thing for the race. We have plenty of weak, good men. We need more of those who dare stand up for their opinions, who in fact *have* opinions, and who can neither by threats nor cajolery be swerved aside from their true course; men, in other words, of backbone.

Backbone does not mean, as I understand it, unbending rigidity, nor obstinacy, nor pugnacity. Consider the structure of the literal backbone. It is strong, but it is also elastic; it may be rigid or it may be flexible; it has a wonderful power of adaptation to varying circumstances. Nothing can better symbolize the character of the men that are the need of the time. We want such men to come forth as the product of our public schools. To this end we need backbone in all things connected with education; they should be vigorous, decided, with a definite purpose, calculated to beget in pupils a habit of independent thought, adapted to their age, condition and development, and so elastic as to serve the varying needs of the place and the time. We want backbone in our methods of teaching, in our discipline, in our courses of study, and in our whole educational system. These four points will be especially referred to in this paper.

First, as to methods of teaching. These are sometimes too rigid, cast in an iron mould, the same for all, young or old, mature or immature. Some teachers present every subject, even in a primary school, in a hard, dry, logical way, that has in it "no variableness, neither shadow of turning." The recitation is simply an examination. No helping hand is offered, and if the pupil gets into deep water, he must help himself out. At a certain age and development of pupils, more or less of this work is needful to cultivate self-reliance; but this is quite an advanced stage. The young and immature become discouraged and faint under it. The child, in its first feeble, tottering steps, must have an arm on which he can rely for aid.

But this method is becoming old-fash-

ioned, and others, more modern, are more popular. There is the co-operative style, as it has been called, at the other extreme, in which the pupil is not trained to depend upon himself at all. The pupil is called, arises, hesitates, and the teacher immediately goes through the work, the pupil looks on admiringly, nods approval, and is marked 10. Or else, when he hesitates, a dozen hands go up in class, and one gives a few words, another a few more, and so on, and if he approves is marked 10, as before. It is really astonishing to look at the class reports of such teachers, and to see how many of their pupils have stood 10 throughout the year; and it is quite as astonishing to see how many of these fail in their examinations. The failure is explained as being the result of bashfulness, or nervousness when examined; but it really is because there has been no backbone in their instruction. They have been nursed and propped up with pillows, until their strength is gone, and when left to themselves they show how flabby, and nerveless, and characterless, their teaching has been.

Then there are teachers who have adopted what they dignify by the name of *topical* method. What they mean by the topical method is, too frequently, the mere repeating verbatim, by the pupil, of the words of the text-book, without questions on the part of the teacher. Truly this is an improved method. It enables the teacher to get on without preparation on his own account, for all he has to do is to look at his book, touch a spring and set some child a-going, and let him run down. A baser slander was never uttered than when such work is called the topical method. Then there are those who wish to train the reasoning faculties of the child. The pupil, no matter how young, must never learn a new process or a new fact, until he can give the philosophy of what he has already learned. He must not learn that $2\times3=6$ until he can tell the reason why $2\times2=4$. If these teachers could help it, they would not allow a babe to learn to talk any faster than it could give the rules of syntax. These teachers are usually very fond of "Mental Arithmetic" for the primary pupils, because they can require a logical analysis for each step. I say nothing against mental arithmetic, if its work is given to the grade of children fitted for it; but in the way it is frequently taught, I do decidedly object to it. A certain form of analysis is usually given in the text-book for each kind of example. The child, no matter what his age or development, must learn the formula, and analyze every example in the words of that formula. Of course, with young pupils, it unavoidably becomes nothing more than a formula—mere mechanical routine. No powers of reasoning are developed by such a process. It is a purely memoriter operation. Permit me to give a specimen out of hundreds of similar ones that I have observed:

Teacher: "Seven times eight is one-half of how many times four?" Pupil (after repeating the question): "Seven times eight is fifty-six, and fifty-six is one-half of one hundred and twelve, and one hundred and twelve is twenty-eight times four. Therefore," etc. Teacher: "No, next." I ask the teacher if that was not right? She says that the answer was right, but that the pupil did not give the correct analysis. "But," I ask, "was not the analysis he gave, a logical one?" "Well," she says, "I mark it a failure if it is not as the book gives it." She shows me the book, which gives this form, viz: "Seven times eight is one-half of as many times four as four is contained times in two times the product of seven times eight," etc.

Can there be any surer way to blunt and deaden all that is keen and bright about a boy, than that? any more certain method of crushing out every attempt at original and independent thought? "It out-Herods Herod." It is a veritable "slaughter of the innocents."

Any of these methods destroy self-reliance and substitute a servile dependence on the teacher or the text-book. Not that either teacher or text-book should be abandoned, by any means. We have heard men crying out, of late years,

"Away with your text-books; no true teacher will use a text-book." But there is a proper use of text-books. They should be studied diligently, and the teacher should show his pupils how to study them. There is great mental discipline in such study. And after leaving school, the greater part of acquired knowledge must come through the medium of books; and if one has not been trained to their use, he can not tread the avenues of thought beaten by other and greater minds before him. But all should be so done as to cultivate to the utmost the child's independence of thought and investigation.

Secondly, as to discipline. Here, too, we find the same extremes. One teacher rules by a law as inflexible as those of the Medes and Persians. He makes no allowance for difference of age, or sex, or temperament, or home training. The single article of his creed is that "discipline must be maintained." He has no smiles, no relaxation, no cordial greetings for his pupils, lest his authority may suffer. In his eyes, a mistake is criminal, a laugh is flat treason. No sound disturbs the solemnity of that awful place. His school is orderly; but so is a penitentiary; everything is silent, but it is the silence of the grave. It is all, as Mr. Mantalini would say, "one demd horrid grind." His pupils may fear him, but they hate him. He has no art nor device by which to catch their sympathy, arouse their enthusiasm, inspire them with grand and noble purposes. He fails entirely of the highest prerogative of the true teacher—that of stamping his own impress and seal upon his pupils for all time. He sends them forth at last, abject, spiritless creatures, or, if they have any rebound, disposed to transgress and defy any law, human or divine, except when restrained by fear.

This kind of school discipline, too, like the rigid method of teaching, is passing away. With the more modern teacher, all is love. He loves all his pupils, from the frowzy, six-year-old boy to the big girls on the back seats. He gushes, he runs over with love. He sets up no absolute standard of right, in any case, to which the ill-disposed and unruly must come. He coaxes and flatters his pupils, and is inclined to toady parents and the school board. He desires to succeed, and his effort is, to govern his school provided he can do it by love, if he cannot, he lovingly submits to have the school govern him. Out upon such sickly, wishy-washy, sentimental nonsense. That teacher is weak who desires any love from pupils not founded upon sincere respect for him as a man, a scholar, and a fearless executive of just and needful regulations. No true boy of spirit will feel anything but pity or contempt for such an invertebrate teacher as I have described.

There is no need of either of these extremes in government. The teacher can be just without being morose; fearless in doing his duty, and yet kind and genial; strict in requiring obedience, and yet swift to do pleasant things for those under his charge.

Thirdly, with regard to courses of study. Not every school in a small town should copy the course adopted at Chicago or Boston, but should arrange it so as to be of the greatest advantage to the majority of the pupils who attend. And yet a good, thorough course should be adopted, not omitting some studies for general culture. And when a course is once adopted, no amount of influence should be permitted to cause teachers and school boards to graduate a pupil unless that pupil has studied and passed a thorough examination in every study laid down in that course. The very common practice of allowing pupils to pass grade who do not meet the demands of the class to which they are going, to thus slide along through the course, and go out at last with the certificate of graduation, is a most bare-faced fraud upon the public and the pupils themselves. It is an old saying that "human nature is as lazy as it can be under the circumstances," and if pupils come to believe that they can "pass" without effort, and that, even if they do not quite come up to the requirements, they will be allowed to slip through, they will, almost universally,

become idle and superficial, and these habits, once formed, will cling to them through life. There is often much pressure brought to bear upon a teacher or examiner in many ways, to permit this, and it needs backbone to resist it. Still, it is not always necessary to keep a pupil going over a study, year after year, for which he has no taste or apparent capacity. If general history be in the course, for instance, and a pupil, bright perhaps, in other things, does not seem able to master this, he may, after one or two trials, be permitted to drop it. But he should not be permitted to *graduate*, and thus have a certificate that he *has* mastered every study in the course. This common practice lowers the tone and reputation of the school, and of its graduates, and is one of the chief reasons why people at large care so little about the diploma of a school, as a certificate of scholarship. It is by no means necessary that a pupil should receive a diploma, but it is essential that he receive good, thorough instruction, should be well grounded in the elementary branches, should have good habits of study fixed upon him, should learn how to do honest, earnest, hard work in whatever station of life he may be.

Lastly, with regard to our general systems of education. I believe, thoroughly, in a state system of instruction, that shall be a living, vertebrate thing, with vital connection in every part, from the University down to the district school, controlled by the same will, informed by the same spirit, aiming at the same great purpose. It must not be so rigid as to shut out the majority of the children of the state from its benefits, nor so loose as not to present an opportunity for thorough instruction to those who desire it. It must yield to no demands of sect or party, and should be, as far as possible, removed from the domain of politics. Permit me to sketch the outline of what appears to me a good plan for such a system.

A Board of Regents, to be appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate, who shall have general control of all the public schools of the state, including University and Normal Schools. The State Superintendent to be *ex-officio* President of said Board. County Superintendents to be appointed by the Regents, on nomination of the State Superintendent. The township to be the unit in school matters, instead of the district. The township and city Boards of Education to be elected at a time of year when there are no other elections, or the City Boards might be nominated by the Mayor and confirmed by the Council. The City Boards of Education should elect the City Superintendent of Schools. The Regents should provide courses of instruction, classical, scientific and technical, that would be continuous, extending from the Primary schools through the University or Normal Schools, and should have charge of examinations for promomotion from one grade of schools to another. Local Boards should be required by law to maintain these courses, though they should be allowed to have such other courses in addition to these, as their localities might need.

Ladies and gentlemen, I make no pretense of having offered any new thoughts in this paper. But the faults at which I have hinted are ever-present, and need ever-repeated attention; and so long as there remains the same need of a strong, vigorous, masculine, and yet flexible system of schools and school administration, so long must these veteran ideas be marshaled in its favor.

A RESOLVE.

BY C. L. MORGAN.

[By accident, this was a long time mislaid.—Eds.]

I will not sit down and bewail my fate,
  Or waste my life in unavailing moans.
Sorrow and loss to all come soon or late;
  Steep grows the way, and flinty are the stones.
Albeit my feet are pierced, I may not wait,
  For swiftly cometh on the moonless night
In which no man can work; therefore again
  Take up thy burden, soul, yet with no tear,
But break into a song, for so thou may'st
  Bless some sad brother crushed and bowed with pain;
Or some poor sister fainting by the way,
  Seeing thy courage shall take heart and cheer.

THE DISTRICT SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

BY PROFESSOR ALBERT SALISBURY, WHITEWATER.

[Paper read before the State Teacher's Association, at Eau Claire, July 30, 1875.]

Within the past few years much has been said in various quarters in favor of introducing into the district or common schools, new and different branches of study. The enthusiastic desire of specialists in this or that direction, to push their own specialties into prominence, even in the elementary work of education, has already met with some success, and shows no signs of cessation of effort for the future.

There was a time when all men were agreed as to the proper character and limitations of the district school work, and "the three R's" held nearly the whole field; but the times are changing, and amid cries of "Lo here" and "Lo there," we are called to the consideration of natural science, of foreign languages, and of even law and politics, as candidates for admission to the district school curriculum.

This matter of change in or addition to the round of common school studies, is one of no small importance, and if it be treated only in an empirical way, and without due attention to the laws of mind and of society involved, we shall be almost sure to blunder seriously if not fatally. It would be the sheerest assumption in me to arrogate to myself the wisdom and the insight necessary to the expounding of these mental and social principles, but I hope to be able, at least, to call *your* minds to a thoughtful consideration of the subject.

First, then, what is the true function of the common school? Various answers may be given, depending in their variety upon the stand-point of the observer and the limit of his vision. One will say that in itself elementary instruction is of little and uncertain value. It is simply the foundation on which to build. And so, in this view, the function of the common school is simply *to prepare for higher culture.*

Another, warm with the heat of the battle now raging in defence of the *public* schools, and with the weapons of that warfare still in his hands, will assert that the function of the common school is only *to prepare for the duties and responsibilities of citizenship.*

Is it presumption to say that both are wrong? So long as nineteen-twentieths at least, of the children of the land never go on to the higher schools, and must be content with what little the district school can offer them, will it not be a mischief to shape the school work for the chief advantage of the fortunate twentieth part? And, on the other hand, is *citizenship* the whole of life?

The end of all education is the putting of the man into the full mastery of himself, not for power and usefulness solely, but for happiness, also. Success in the struggle for existence, sobriety and wisdom in the discharge of social obligation, the rational enjoyment of life, and a true conception of the ends of living—all these must combine in the end which the common school, and all other schools must set before themselves for realization, each in its own degree.

And so we must keep ever in mind, in our determination of district school work, the fact that, in a great majority of cases, we are preparing our charges for success or failure, for happiness or misery, in the busy life near at hand. Better that we should somewhat burden the higher schools by sending them pupils whose modicum of culture has not been perfectly adjusted to that which is to follow, than that we should deprive those who are going at once into active life of any practical thing which will be useful to them there.

Secondly, we must give heed to the nature of childhood—with its quick response to outward impressions, its tenacious retention of interesting facts and events, and its as yet small capacity for abstraction and reasoning. Eager and omnivorous as is the child-mind, its power of digestion is very weak—and what a horrible disease is that mental dyspepsia which comes of a diet of abstractions,

and the dry bones, or even strong meat of of science.

The power of reflection and abstraction hardly comes to the child before he has gone from us, to the work of life, or perchance to the higher school, and while he is with us we should give him that which he can take in, digest and assimilate. I take it that the most valuable things which we can give him are a discipline to steadiness and self-control, and an inspiration to future effort and growth, self-sustained, and, in a measure, self-directed. And so I attach the very highest importance to the discipline of the school-room in all its aims, too often unconscious and ill-directed, toward the culture of obedience, truthfulness, industry, punctuality, silence, justice and kindness. But as a necessary adjunct to, or rather ground for, this discipline, there must be activity, not perfunctory, but spontaneous and healthy.

And now we are ready to ask what should be in the common school in order to conform to these requirements of (1) fit preparation for the highest happiness in life; (2) adaptation to the nature and capacities of the youthful mind, and (3) free and healthy activity and the inspiration of self-culture.

First in time and in value we must place Reading, the key to all other studies, and most truly foundation work. Without it the doors of all science are locked and barred, and all the recorded experience of the ages is under seal. Being essential alike to the higher culture and to the utilities of life, and at the same time well adapted to the natural activity of the youthful intelligence, it certainly has no rival in importance; but it as certainly has its limits in the district school as to method and degree. A German writer (Diesterweg) has assigned to the art of reading three stages, which he names according to the predominating element or idea in each, as the Mechanical, the Logical, and the Aesthetical. Using this analysis as at least a convenient one, we must say of the last, the Aesthetical, stage of reading, that it has no rightful place in the district school. Rising as it does to the height of a fine art, it belongs to the higher or special culture for which the district school is at most but preparatory. Promptness and accuracy, with simple naturalness, we must earnestly strive after, but we may well dispense with rhetorical effect, for if we attempt it we shall not only fail of success, but probably also miss the greater good more nearly at hand.

Arithmetic undoubtedly stands next to Reading, and has its value not alone in its reference to practical affairs and the higher culture, but also in its discipline of the mind to close attention, and the steadiast pursuit of a result under varying conditions. And the fact that this discipline can often be more effectually secured by what is known as Mental Arithmetic, has led to some mistakes in practice; and thousands of teachers for years past have been daily listening to parrot-like repetitions from children of from seven to twelve years of age, and deluding themselves into the belief that those juveniles were really going through a course of reasoning. Oh, the blissful ignorance of such lesson-hearers. But equally vain with such attempts to teach logical process to infants, is the endeavor to induct youth of a slightly greater development into the useless mysteries of "Alligation," "General Average," and the like.

As regards Geography, are we not liable here to a great waste of time? and is not the parental instinct a right one which so often comes in with the plea, "I do not wish my child to study Geography?" The answer is that geography underlies all history, that of the past and that of the present, which latter we call "news." Without a considerable amount of geographical knowledge, the reader will be lost in a mazy fog, whether he be delving in Gibbon or scanning the "Daily Times," either in its editorials or in its market reports. And Geography is also important in its relation to Botany, Geology and other sciences. But what of utility or of happiness can be reached by yearly drill in the strange sounding names of the mountains of Mexico, or

the rivers of Siberia, is more than a merely ordinary intelligence can discover.

So far we have been preparing our pupil for receiving rather than communicating; but he must also learn the arts of communication, namely: Writing, spelling, and something of grammar. Spelling is of value only as a prerequisite to writing; at once subordinate and difficult to acquire, it is nevertheless a necessity, and no amount of railing at its inconsistencies will ever counterbalance or excuse a deficient mastery of it. Another prerequisite to intelligent communication, is a practical knowledge of the usages of language, though this is somewhat different from what is commonly called grammar. This practical knowledge of language is certainly a proper subject for acquisition in the district school, even in very young classes, since it begins with the home and infancy, so that it is even questionable whether the child does not make more progress in the practical mastery of his own tongue before the school days begin, than during their continuance. But grammar defined as "the *science* of language," is a very different thing, and while it has its place in education and is valuable as introducing the maturing mind into the realm of abstract ideas and relations, it is, except in the very simplest elements, as far beyond the grasp of the pupil under fifteen as Logic or the Higher Algebra. It is a sad thing that it should have taken so many generations for teachers of the English language to learn that they too must give heed to the nature and capacity of the youthful mind; that this child in his first love with the outer world cannot so soon be turned inward to feed upon abstractions. And it is also sad that while there is now practical unanimity in gatherings of this sort as to the place of technical grammar, it will take the average district school teacher yet many generations to learn that the art of language precedes the science, and that analysis is no substitute for synthesis.

The six studies now enumerated, Reading, Writing and Spelling; Arithmetic, Geography and Language, are by general consent indispensable, at least in the amount which I have indicated; and in the minds of many they are also sufficient. While next to none would exclude any of these, some would admit nothing more, claiming that here is already more work than the district school can successfully accomplish—and with truth, if we were to work exhaustively all the ground usually attempted in these branches. But with the limitations which I have advocated in Arithmetic, Geography and Grammar, and with a proper discrimination between thoroughness and exhaustiveness, we shall be able to find room for some other very desirable lines of work. And in order to determine what these shall be, let us inquire what capacities of the child, or what needs of the future citizen are most unprovided for or overlooked in the list already admitted.

The child stands before us with his five or more senses ready for use, but untrained. These senses are his fact-gatherers, the instruments through which he is to get his knowledge of the external; have we thus far made any adequate provision for the culture which they deserve? Lamentably not; we have provided for a little eye and ear culture in Reading, Writing and Spelling, but the provision is indirect and inadequate. And so it is not strange that observant teachers are so often astonished by the woful deficiency exhibited by their pupils in the *power of observation.* And any work wisely adapted to this end of sense-culture, must deal more with the objective, with the forms of nature, so accessible and so interesting to the child-mind in its normal state. And here, I take it, is the chief foundation for the claims of Natural Science to a place in the common school, though not the whole, since the study of nature can certainly do something in the direction of that inspiration to self-culture which I have included among the ends of the common school work.

But which of the sciences shall be chosen? for they cannot all enter.

Many, having in view its practical value as related to the preservation of health, etc., would insist upon Physiology, and

in one state at least (Indiana), it is already introduced by legal enactment as a regular branch in district schools. The objection to this lies only in the fact that it is but poorly adapted to that sense-culture for which we are contending. For this purpose no other science seems so well adapted as Botany, during the growing portion of the year. And so I am of the opinion that these two, Botany and Physiology may well divide the year between them as a permanent and recognized portion of the common school work; though I am not sure but the text-book will yet be written which shall arrange and combine from the various natural sciences and Geometry, to form a course especially adapted to the end of training the senses and cultivating the power and habit of observation.

But yet another thing I must insist upon, and that is the study of History. It is true that History is not a bread-study, and so may be thrown aside if the struggle for existence be the whole of living. But, to quote from a late English essayist (Quick), "The study of history, like traveling, widens the student's mental vision, frees him to some extent from the bondage of the present, and prevents his mistaking conventionalities for laws of nature. It brings home to him, in all its force, the truth that 'there are also people beyond the mountain;' that there are higher intents in the world than his own business concerns, and nobler men than himself or the best of his acquaintances. It teaches him what men are capable of, and so gives him juster views of his race. And to have all this truth worked into the mind contributes largely to 'complete living.' I can read with no patience Mr. Herbert Spencer's deliverances on the worthlessness of the study of history and its failure to influence and mold the citizen. It is evident that he has never lived in average American society, nor caught a breath of anything like our Centennial atmosphere. If the soul of the English youth does not respond with a thrill of rising manhood to many a story from English history, so much the worse for the English youth; *we* have better. And I am of the opinion that American citizenship and patriotism owe no small debt to the recitals of their history. Suppose that the history of such grand characters as Washington, Samuel and John Quincy Adams, or Lincoln, could be henceforth wholly withheld from the knowledge of our youth, does any one here believe that American citizenship would not be a poorer thing for the suppression? I am fully conscious of what various interpretations may be put upon the "lessons of history," but no variety of interpretation can affect the general broadening and inspirational effect of the study.

A word must be said concerning the kind of history that I would have taught in the common school. It should be chiefly that of the people speaking our own language. The history of our own nation, brief as it is, is full of lofty example and highest leadership, toward heroism and self-sacrificing devotion to ideas; but I would add, perhaps prefix to this, much of the history of the mother land, and somewhat from that of all lands. For the advanced student I would have something such a history as Mr. Spencer suggests, that should deal with governments, their structure, methods, principles, prejudices and corruptions; with religions; with industries, with arts, manners and customs. But the young mind is not ready for this. I would the rather work to the child's eager love for stories, its impressibility and alert interest in the shocks of armies, and in the lives and deeds of noble and even ignoble men and women—the whole to be given, not in dry detail, but in pictures of the world's life, as it were, with but moderate regard to exact dates, though with close attention to geography.

And now I see room for little further. Indeed I have made room for history and natural science only by a needed pruning of the old established branches.

While I would have reading made of prime importance, I would have no reading-book in the district school higher than a fourth reader of ordinary grade. I would have nothing of distinctively

Mental Arithmetic, until the pupil was at least old enough to see the drift of a logical process, and none of the arithmetical gimcracks or antiquities which so often lumber up the higher text-books, but which no teacher can now "skip" without arousing sore suspicion. I would have only so much of geography as would serve to make intelligible history and the record of current events. I would have Writing, Spelling, and enough of the Art of Language to enable the young citizen to communicate his thoughts in respectable form to whom it may concern. I would have the sense-culture of some high branch of natural science, and the enlarging effect of history, and I would have as much as practicable of vocal music and elementary drawing, the justification of which I must leave to other pens or to another time. And surely there is room for nothing more.

And here would seem the proper place to end my dissertation, but I wish to turn your attention for a moment to two mistakes which have been made by our Wisconsin Solons, in admitting the study of civil government and of foreign languages into the district schools. I believe I am safe in saying that neither of these measures originated with the teachers of the state, but that both were born of the politicians; but setting aside their origin, let us consider their operation:

That the study of our governmental system is a proper one to enter into American education, I would insist as strongly as any one; but that anything worthy the name of study can be made of it, in the common school I no longer believe. The study of such subjects as technical Grammar, Civil Government, Political Economy, and the Philosophy of History, belong with Algebra, to the range of higher or at least of secondary studies; and an attempt to crowd any of them into the district school, will not only be unsuccessful in practice—which I believe has been been abundantly proved—but is moreover unjust in principle, a robbery perpetual upon the school. I would admit only so much of Civil Government as may be easily brought forward in connection with U. S. History, and I would have some penalty provided for the district school teacher who should attempt to give instruction in such topics as the Jurisdiction of the Federal Courts or the matters contained in Art. IV., for instance, of the U. S. Constitution. I am not now, however, arguing against the examination of teachers in this branch, for I think it expedient that teachers be required to have some knowledge of more subjects than those in which they are expected to give formal instruction.

As to the law allowing foreign languages to be taught in the public schools for one hour a day, I have credible authority for saying that when enacted it was not, as most seem to suppose, a concession to a demand from the German element of our population. It was the invention of a political adventurer, not German in nationality, but seeking to acquire some legislative capital with which to set himself up in the political stock-market. That the Germans have been the only ones to take advantage of the law is, so far as we are here concerned, merely an accident. The philosophy of the thing is what we wish to come at.

First, then, why should the people of any nationality wish to introduce their language into American common schools? Plainly the chief motive is love and loyalty to the father-land, mingled not seldom with something of contempt for the institutions of their adopted country. Patriotism is certainly not a fault, and we can blame no one for partiality to his native tongue; but since our foreign-born citizens had not enough of loyalty to their native lands to stay in them, we might reasonably expect them to make no attempt to transplant Prussia or Norway into America. The heterogenity of the population is already a source of no little solicitude to students of our political and social problems, and it hardly seems wise that we should adopt legal measures calculated to confirm this heterogenity and retard assimilation. American citizens have need of an American education, but the practical workings of those district schools in the

state—and they are not few—which are now teaching foreign languages, shows that the acquisition of English, or rather of American culture, is not only thereby *hindered*, but almost *prevented*.

I have it on official testimony, namely, that of the county superintendents themselves, in those counties where the foreign element is strong and unassimilated, that not only in single districts but often in whole townships, the intelligent teaching of English is hardly known, and still less desired. The permission to teach foreign language one hour a day, forms a loop-hole through which the whole day is drawn, except indeed the days on which the county superintendent visits the schools. One county superintendent, himself of foreign extraction, said to me, "In some of our schools the Catechism (Roman Catholic) is taught three times a day; but I cannot interfere with that; I have all that I can do to secure the teaching of English at all." In another county the superintendent, also a foreigner, said, "I think that the law permitting the teaching of any language but English in the district schools, is the most mischievous and destructive thing that could well have been devised." And I might go on with much other testimony equally direct and official. These things demand our serious attention.

But I have wearied you too long. Allow me only to say further that I am by no means casting a shaft at any language or any nationality; nor am I to be found denying the mental and practical advantages of the study of other languages than our own, *in the proper time and place.* Far be that from me. But it has been my sole purpose, as announced in the outset, to call your minds to a thoughtful consideration of what is a wise and safe curriculum for our common schools.

ANY ONE learns more readily and remembers more willingly what excites his ridicule than what deserves esteem and respect.—*Horace.*

WISE men are instructed by reason, less intelligent men by experience, the most ignorant by necessity, and animals by instinct.

PRACTICAL EDUCATION.

All agree that the great need of the times in which we live is education, that that culture which develops, enlarges and enriches each individual mind to its fullest capacity, by a thorough acquaintance with the laws and facts of the material world and of the human soul. And yet what this education really is, or how it is to be best secured, is not very clearly comprehended by a majority of the people, or by teachers themselves.

Two widely different, and in many respects antagonistic theories of education prevail at the present time. One theory seeks "learning for itself, and not for lucre or any other end than the service of God and the truth." The other teaches that education is to fit a man to provide food, clothing and shelter,—all the necessaries and luxuries of life. It will accept of no results which cannot be weighed in the balances as so much merchandise or counted out as so much ready cash. "The three persons of its Divinity are Trade, Money and Machinery."

Our common schools are in very little danger from the first tendency; the evils to be feared, all lie in the direction of the last. Parents are anxious that their children should learn those things which will be of practical service to them in after life. Hence a large amount of time must be devoted to Reading, Spelling, Grammar, and especially to Arithmetic. This is well, but still do not these studies receive an undue share of attention in our district schools? Nor are they really any more practical than other branches which are sadly neglected. In Arithmetic, for instance, how many ever make use of anything except the fundamental rules, and interest, while several principles which are required in some particular kinds of business are not found in our ordinary text-books, but must be learned afterwards.

Many parents and teachers insist upon the study of Grammar as being a practical and useful branch of study, but neglect composition writing as in their opinion unnecessary. Where is the practical

benefit arising from this study as it is usually taught in our schools, except as a discipline to the mind? A child may learn to conjugate a verb with all the precision of a machine, decline the pronouns with perfect accuracy, or repeat the rules of syntax in order without the omission of a word, and still be ignorant of the underlying principles of the language. More attention should be given to the first principles, the critical spirit should be aroused, and the errors in common conversation carefully pointed out. And in no way can this be more successfully accomplished than by a systematic course of instruction in composition, begun early and continued through the whole period of school life.

Again, what can be more useful than a thorough knowledge of the structure and mechanism of the human body and of the laws of health? And yet, in but few of our schools is Physiology taught with any degree of thoroughness.

Botany is another study of a decidedly practical nature, and is deserving of more attention than it receives. Vague and indefinite impressions lead to mis-statement and vice. Accuracy of statement and of observation lead to the most beneficial results. And yet how little effort is made to train these powers of observation. How many, even of the teachers who read this, can tell definitely the office of each of the several parts of a flower? How many can describe the difference between the leaf of the maple and the oak; the willow and the peach; the apple and the pear? How many know what becomes of the seed of the pumpkin, squash or bean when the plant rises above the surface of the ground? But few studies which come within the range of the youthful mind tend more to cultivate habits of observation than botany.

Education, then, in its broadest sense, not the involution of dry facts, but the evolution of the pre-existent, God-given faculties; the "drawing forth all that is potentially in the child," should ever be the aim of the true teacher. He should not strive to cultivate one set of faculties at the expense of others, but should zealously labor for that full, harmonious development of all the powers, that freedom from narrowness and prejudice, that breadth and comprehensiveness of thought which characterizes the truly educated man or woman.—H., *in the Kenosha Telegraph.*

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

1. You should be at the school early to receive and welcome your pupils with a pleasant smile and a friendly word. Be "on hand" at least fifteen minutes before the time for commencing.

2. See that the school room be made attractive by having it well warmed, thoroughly swept, and every article of furniture in its place, before calling school.

3. Pupils should be required to enter the school room, and leave the same in a quiet, orderly manner. Allow no boisterous or improper conduct at any time. Eating and drinking should be indulged in during the intermission only. The custom of allowing children to play *in the school room*, even during the recess, is decidedly objectionable.

4. If you wish to teach your pupils to be prompt in learning and reciting their lessons, be prompt and systematic in your daily exercises. Have a written "order of exercises," and follow it strictly. Have a time and place for everything.

5. Much confusion and annoyance are frequently occasioned by allowing pupils to ask questions at other than stated times. Pupils should not be permitted to interrupt the teacher during recitations. A short time might be given after each recitation, or at stated periods, in which to ask and answer questions.

6. Should whispering be allowed in school? It is seldom necessary—the more whispering the less study. But if allowed at all, let it be by permission only.

7. Much talking by the teacher does not necessarily assure good discipline. Very frequently the reverse is true. Talk little, but talk to the point. Let yes mean only *yes*, and no, *no*. Combine firmness with gentleness. Say no as pleasantly as yes, but do not repeat it.

8. Give special and constant attention to the physical needs of your pupils. The school room should be thoroughly ventilated, else pupils will become dull and inattentive. Every school room should be furnished with a thermometer, in order that it may be kept at a proper breathing temperature (60° to 70° Fah.) Endeaver to maintain a uniform temperature of about 68°. Education is of but little worth if obtained at the sacrifice of health.

9. You should make a special preparation for each day's work. By so doing, you will be better able to fix the attention and rouse the energies of your pupils. Make yourself thoroughly conversant with whatever you propose to teach. Aim to be thorough in your teaching—not how much, but how well.

10. Inculcate the necessity of prompt and exact obedience, and insist upon it. Willful disobedience should never be tolerated. Do not use harsh or boisterous tones in admonishing children; this will defeat your object. Without watchfulness teachers will be apt to fall into the habit of speaking to their pupils in a scolding and fretful manner. Many a gentle disposition has been spoiled in this way. By all means avoid it.

11. If serious difficulties occur through the misconduct of pupils, call upon the parents, or communicate with them, and have an understanding of the case before punishing the offender. Endeavor to enforce discipline by appealing to the pupil's sense of right and honor. If large pupils cannot be induced to render implicit obedience in this way, it is a question whether the trustees ought not to dismiss them from the school. The moral atmosphere of the school should not be tainted by the presence of vicious and persistently disobedient children.

12. Remember that children learn by example as well as by precept, therefore, let your conduct and conversation be worthy of imitation.

13. Endeavor, by all means, to secure the regular and prompt attendance of your pupils. Your success will depend largely upon your ability to draw the children into the school and to keep them there. This can be accomplished by making the school pleasant and attractive; by getting all your pupils interested in their studies, and by frequent communication with parents.

14. Reading should receive your most careful attention. While it may be true that most if not all children can be taught to read well, it is also true that but few are thus taught. In primary reading the pupil should be able to call *at sight* each word in the lesson before attempting to read. When able to call *at sight* all the words in a sentence, let them repeat it after you, until they can read it properly and in their natural tone. Continue this till reading becomes a fixed habit. The reading lesson should receive a preliminary preparation *in the class* before assigning it to the pupils to study.

15. The spelling lesson for primary classes should be the words of the succeeding reading lesson, rather than the preceding. Words in the first, second and third reader should be thoroughly learned before introducing a spelling book. Pronounce distinctly the words to be spelled, and do not allow your pupils to try upon a word more than once. In advanced classes require your pupils to write the spelling lesson from dictation; in this way the orthography of words is more readily learned and remembered. Pupils should not be required to spell words until their meaning is well understood. The spelling lesson should be selected, therefore, from sentences rather than from columns of words. Do not confine yourself to the spelling book, but select words of difficult orthography in common use, and write them upon the blackboard for the pupils to learn.

16. It is a noticeable fact that, in many schools, writing is not *taught* at all. Copy books are placed in the hands of pupils, with the instruction to write a certain number of lines each day. While the pupils are attending to this exercise the teacher is hearing some other lesson. Writing should receive the earnest and undivided attention of both pupils and teacher, during the time appropriated to

it. When practicable, lessons in drawing should alternate with the writing exercise.

17. In geography, do not require children to learn definitions and terms from the text book without previous oral instruction by which the subjects to be studied have been illustrated and explained. The practice of simply assigning a given number of verses to be learned, and of requiring the pupils to answer the questions in the book merely, is, to say the least, a great waste of time. The importance of map-drawing cannot be overestimated; by this means more definite instruction can be given than perhaps in any other way.

18. In teaching arithmetic, never require your pupils to learn rules until the principles have been thoroughly explained, and are well understood. Teach the principles by familiar questions and examples, rather than by rules. Let every step and every principle be thoroughly impressed on the mind of the pupils by the performance of numerous practical examples. If you would have your pupils make rapid progress in this study, "make haste slowly," and *review* every day.

19. Language, though one of the most important of all studies, is, in many schools, either entirely neglected or very indifferently taught. "Language lessons" should receive the careful and constant attention of every teacher. In one form or another, each class, each pupil, should receive daily instruction in language.

The reading lesson will afford excellent opportunity to teach language to primary classes. Require all your pupils to use correct language at all times. Never allow an incorrect or improper expression to go uncorrected. Oral instruction in grammar should always precede the introduction of the text book, which should be used by the more advanced classes only. Grammar and composition should be taught in connection with each other.

20. Important as are the physical and intellectual training of children, any course of instruction which includes these only, must be, and is, fatally defective. Embrace, therefore, every opportunity to impart *moral* instruction, and keep the closest watch over your pupils, not only in school, but during the recess and intermission. Endeavor to develop in them all the nobler faculties of the mind. Let your dealings with them be characterized by love, and an earnest desire to do them good. Be what you would have them become.—C. G. BROWER, *Commissioner of Schools, Westchester Co., N. Y.*

MENTAL CULTURE.

BY JULIA CLARK, NEOSHO, DODGE CO.

The two principal objects of education are the development of the mind, and the acquirement of knowledge. They are not identical, and the first seems to be almost ignored by the majority of teachers, especially by those who use our profession only as a stepping-stone to some other. Such instructers adopt the cramming process, and allow their ambitious pupils to swallow more than they can digest. They make the mere possession of facts an end, instead of a means of higher development. Although we do not assume it the duty of the teacher to manufacture brains for the person of small mental capacity, we think it *is* his duty to cultivate what the pupil does possess, and this cannot be accomplished through memory alone. When the pupil has become acquainted with some law of mathematics or philosophy, he should be required to form hypotheses by analogy, and, unaided, to prove their truth or falsity. This will cultivate general observation and a taste for intellectual hard work not attained by simply memorizing the results of another study. System is as essential to the pupil as the teacher; for each item must be labeled in order and placed with others of its species, that when required the reproductive faculties may find it for representation. Confine the scholar to the text-book and he will never attempt to prove anything for himself. A variety of standard authors on the same subject should be given him for examination and reference, and his own ideas solicited; thus teaching him self-reliance, and that

his opinions may be worth something, though they do not exactly coincide with Swinton on Language, or Haven on Metaphysics.

Let the conscientious teacher pursue such a course of instruction, and the result of his labors will be everlasting. His graduates will not consist of mechanical repeaters, but of profound and energetic thinkers.

PURPOSE IN TEACHING.—There must be an animating purpose in teaching, as in every pursuit. Without such purpose the business is a lifeless, almost barren routine of tasks. And that purpose in its full breadth comprehends mind in all its attainments, its energies and its possibilities. Some one looking at Niagara, with all the enthusiasm at his command, pronounces it "very *fine.* Another in conversation upon authors, declares that "Shakspeare is quite a poet." In like manner will many a teacher most highly estimate the character and dignity of his calling. And the strangely small and poor results wrought in many school rooms are the evidences of shallow purposes, narrow views and immature fruits. We need not look for a reason. To the ordinary teacher the child's mind is a common-place affair, a plaything, or a useful machine. You cannot make it appear a thing more exalted to the teacher, because the horizon of his own mental culture is too narrowly bounded. "The eye sees only what it brings the power to see." And the field of vision of such an one is not only limited, but is remarkable for the lack of objects that go to make up a scene that stirs enthusiasm. *Catholic School Record.*

AT a recent examination of one of the schools in Washington, the question was put to a class of small boys: "Why is the Connecticut river so called?" when a bright little fellow put up his hand. "Do you know, James?" "Yes ma'am. Because it connects Vermont and New Hampshire, and cuts through Massachusetts," was the triumphant reply.

MAKE yourself an honest man, and then you may be sure there is one rascal less in the world.—*Carlyle.*

MY HOME-WREATH.

BY META E. THORNE.

Ah, ye sweet-faced little ones—
  Thank God for your love!
Hearts as pure as flowers of earth.
  Or shining stars above;
Voices like the caroling
  Of the wildwood birds;
Blessings be upon you now
  For your loving words.

Eyes like violets opening
  Where the dews lie hid,
Shading sweetest earnest thought
  'Neath each drooping lid,
How my heart leans out to you,
  And my lips will smile,
Just to see your joyousness,
  And innocence of guile.

Ye are blossoms of our homes,
  Making life more fair;
Heavenly Father keep these flowers
  In thy tender care.
May they brighter, purer grow.
  Shielded by thy love;
Then at last transported be
  To Eden bowers above.

THE NEW EGYPT OF KHEDIVE ISMAIL.

PUBLIC INTRUCTION.

Having spent part of last winter in Egypt, I propose giving your readers, from time to time, some sketches of what I saw there, and some idea of the immense changes wrought on place and people by the energetic efforts of one man—the Khedive Ismail—since I left the country a few years ago.

These changes are both external and internal, and it is no exaggeration to say that, since Czar Peter, no ruler has ever wrought so wonderful and radical a revolution in the character, habits, and training of a people, or in the march of an empire, as the Khedive of Egypt has already initiated, and is pressing to successful completion, into the very heart of Africa.

Passing by, for the moment, the outward evidences of material progress which now force themselves on the eye and attention of the latter-day tourist, at Alexandria, Cairo, and other great centres of population—as well as the vast acquisition but recently made in Central Africa—the abolition of the internal slave trade, and the establishment of the new

mixed legal tribunals (each one of which is a revolution), I design to briefly state some facts in relation to the educational progress made and making within the last ten years.

Never before in the history of mankind has the effort been made *to educate an entire people all at once*—to drag them up from utter ignorance into the light of culture and civilization through the instrumentality of absolute power; and the success is almost as wonderful as the attempt. Under Said Pasha's administration, in 1862, the government appropriations annually for all educational purposes (then in the hands of the imaums, or priests) amounted to about twenty thousand dollars. In 1872 the government appropriated four hundred thousand dollars for that purpose, with large and liberal donations from the Khedive and his sons, to the tune of many thousands more, to the private schools, native and foreign, Mussulman and Christian, male and female.

In Mehemet Ali's time there were but six thousand boys receiving public instruction; and this such as the native priests were capable of giving them—which, of course, was very little—they as a class, being ignorant of all but the Koran and a little ciphering. The schools of the missionaries, established under his successors, very limited in means and extent, have only been useful to a few of the children of the native Christians—a handful of the population.

The schools now established, under the supervision of European instructors, such as the learned and skilled Inspector of Schools, M. Doa—a Swiss—and Mr. Rogers, late British consul at Cairo, now School Superintendent—and one of the best Arabic scholars among the foreign residents—are intended to educate the whole growing male community of Egypt. Separate schools, richly endowed, have been established for the education of girls—a startling novelty—patronized by the royal princess, and presided over by Miss Whately, the niece of the Archbishop of Dublin, whose zeal is only surpassed by her ability.

Already the male pupils in these schools are estimated at one hundred thousand in the cities and the villages. As the whole number of boys in Egypt proper would not exceed three hundred and fifty thousand, it will be seen how large a proportion are now being educated—greater in fact than in most countries calling themselves civilized, for the proportion is fourfold greater than in Russia, and greater even than that of Italy.

Education in Egypt has now been made compulsory, as it is in Prussia, and even the female children of the fellahs, or rural laborers, are to be educated and fitted for domestic service, so as to replace the present negro slaves—one of the strongest blows at slavery in the household that could be aimed—proving both the will and the wisdom of the Khedive in this regard. The girls are said to make rapid progress, as well as the boys; and the next generation of Egyptians will be very different from the present, owing to this state of things.

In addition to these common schools, the Khedive has also instituted special schools of instruction for the officers of his army, in which modern languages, mathematics, and the higher branches are taught—as well as schools for the instruction of the rank and file, numbering from thirty to forty thousand—all of whom are picked young men—the elder soldiers having been discharged and returned to field labor in their native villages. Promotion, both of officers and soldiers, is now dependent on their educational progress, and even leave of absence is granted only to those able to apply for it in writing—which, I believe, is the case in no other army in the world—in most of which ignorance is the rule and intelligence the exception—the soldier regarded as a machine, not a man. Europe and America, in this matter, might well take a lesson from Egypt—since the horrors of war might be greatly lessened by educating and humanizing its tools, as the Khedive is doing. If he can elevate the dumb drudges of the fields into intelligent beings, as well as his soldiers, even England may have cause to blush at

the contrast with her rural population, for whom no such humanizing efforts are being made, and who, to-day, are scarcely more intelligent than the oxen they drive, as their fathers were before them, and their sons must be; and the same is the case in most of the Continental states.

As another proof of the importance he attaches to this matter, the Khedive has put at the head of the Ministry of Public Instruction his son-in-law, Joussoum Pasha, son of the late viceroy, with able European subordinates. The Arabs are naturally quick-witted and fond of study, and the progress made by the children is exceedingly rapid. In this they differ from the negro or wooly-headed race, who are chiefly employed as domestic servants. Although there are black regiments in the army, a black officer of high grade is an exception.

The fellah is copper-colored, as dark as, or darker than, the American Indian, and with with the same sparse beard and straight hair, the latter of which he shaves, the former he lets alone, reversing Western precedents.

At the Citadel at Cairo, which is now really a high school for the instruction of officers, and central point for the dissemination of information, I saw native young men busily employed at type-setting, proof-correcting, book-publishing, lithographing, and map-making, and showing wonderful skill and aptitude at their work. They now issue a monthly magazine of science and literature, printed in the Arabic characters; and the number which I have contains diagrams of the transit of Venus, and much reading matter. I have also some volumes of manuals of tactics, very prettily illustrated, all the work of which was done by native Egyptians.

The American officers, at the head of whom are Generals Loring and Stone (old and distinguished United States Army officers, both of whom rank as pashas), have initiated and are successfully carrying out these educational improvements under the intelligent administration of the Khedive's second son, Hussein, who is Minister of War—his eldest, Prince Tewfik, acting as Minister of the Interior, and filling that post to the great satisfaction of all. The Khedive's idea in educating the children of the lower classes—hitherto sunk in the depths of utter ignorance—is to furnish a class fit to undertake those duties now confided to slaves, and elevate both employer and servant in the social scale, and in civilized habits. The twin sisters, polygamy and slavery, he believes can thus be made to disappear, and the great work of extirpating the slave trade of the Nile Basin, which he has successfully accomplished thus far by the expedition of Baker and Gordon, is to be supplemented in Egypt itself—a grand idea, and one in a fair way of accomplishment, though, of course, it will take several years to carry it out thoroughly in a country and with a people so wedded to old ideas and customs.

He has struck a heavy blow at the habit of plural wives in his own household, by insisting that all his sons and daughters shall be the husbands and wives of but one spouse each, a most significant indication of his purpose and sentiments in this regard. All these sons and daughters, too, he has caused to be carefully educated in foreign languages, literature and acquirements, and they are habitual attendants at the opera and theatre he has caused to be established at Cairo during the winter season—than which better performances cannot be found at Paris or London. The ladies, it is true, are but partially visible, the harem-boxes—six in number—being veiled with muslin curtains, through which flashing eyes and outlines of faces are alone visible to the other spectators. But this semi-publicity is but a stride toward the abolition of the seclusion of women, which seems so ingrained in Eastern habitudes and sentiments.

When the door of the cage is left half-opened, the caged birds will be very apt to find a way out of their captivity sooner or later.

The heir-apparent, Prince Tewfik, has ably seconded his father's efforts in this matter of education. Being a large land-

ed proprietor, he owns numerous villages attached to his farms and has founded a school in each one. At all of these instruction is free. In the neighborhood of his palace at Koubeh he has just finished a large school house for boys—the children of the fellaha—and the day the school opened thirty-six boys attended, every subsequent day adding to their number. Every evening he himself inspected their progress for the first week. With admirable judgment, the furniture of these schools intended for peasant children is of the simplest kind, though cleanliness is strenuously enforced. All the solid branches of primary instruction are taught by competent teachers; and, in addition to gardens attached to the school building, the Prince has given eight *feddans* (acres) of land to be used for teaching the pupils the modern improvements in agriculture. All this shows how zealously the son is treading in the footsteps of his father. The difficultics that environ the gigantic task of educating an entire people, plunged in the depths of ignorance and semi-barbarism, are enhanced by the peculiar character and moral and religious training of the Egyptian native population. Opposed by the passive resistance, the *vis inertiæ* of an obstinate and bigoted people, with whom custom and old prejudices have all the force of laws, and the idleness engendered by an enervating climate, the Khedive Ismail is resolutely pushing on, and fast freeing the growing generation of his people from the yoke of ignorance, apathy and fanaticism—the three gods of their old idolatry. He is compelling them to their good, and using absolute power for the most beneficent purposes to which that perilous privilege was ever applied. For he has had to create not only an empire, but to revive an apparently effete and exhausted people, generally supposed not only to be obstinately opposed to propress and enlightenment, but also to be incapable of receiving them.

If the East has turned a deaf ear to the West, and hugged its old idols closer to its bosom because of the efforts made to alienate her from them, on the other hand the West has done less than justice to the capacity and actual intelligence of her elder sister, from whose old stores so much of modern knowledge has been drawn.

The experiment of renewing intellectual culture in the East has now been initiated in the old fields of Egypt, and Christendom cannot but watch with hope the spread of light into those dark places. At the coming Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia—for which the Khedive is making ample preparation—Egypt will be represented, and it will probably surprise most Americans to see what her exhibition will be. Not only our agriculturalists, but our manufacturers and draughtsmen, will have to look to their laurels, in the competition which she can now offer in these varied fields; and her portion of that great international showground will certainly prove not the least interesting.

Some recent "sentimental travelers" from America and elsewhere, have been shedding hysterical tears (in ink) over the changes wrought by the march of improvement at Cairo, in the demolition of the "picturesque" but exceedingly dirty and dangerous mud houses, and erection of stone buildings in their place. The same class of people howled loudly over the Emperor Napoleon's demolition and reconstruction of old Paris, and with the same effect. Fine phrases are harmless, if inexpensive.

> "..... The poet's eye
> In a fine frenzy rolling,"

never yet condescended to dwell on the practical or the useful; but the present generation prefer looking at the inside rather than the outside of things, and the tourist had better leave his "singing-robes" at home and come down to common sense, when professing to give a description of one of the greatest national movements of this generation.

Surely the sympathy and moral support of all educated Americans ought to go with the great Eastern reformer, who has borrowed so much from American example, and is modeling his country as

closely after theirs as the difference of place, people and situation will permit, even if, in the attainment of these ends, he must remove much rubbish, material and sentimental.

But the man and his works will survive, when the caviling critics—like the grasshopper filling the fields with its clamor—are unheard and forgotten. The poet lives in the past—the statesman in the present and future.—EDWIN DE LEON, *in Appleton's Journal.*

THE HEALTH OF PUPILS.

BY A. O. WRIGHT.

[Read at the Convention of Institute Conductors.]

The teacher stands in the place of the parent during the time that children are under his care. His first duty is to the minds of his pupils, his second to their morals, and his third to their health. In case of a teacher of a boarding school, who has charge of his pupils constantly, this order is exactly reversed, and it is his first duty to care for the health of his pupils, next for their morals, and last for their studies. But a teacher in our common schools has no such responsibility. The care of the health and morals belongs chiefly to the parents. If children come to school scrofulous, dyspeptic, consumptive, the teacher cannot help it, though he may mourn over it. The teacher in a public school cannot revolutionize the diet and dress and habits of pupils—the things which chiefly make good or ill health. But there are some things which affect the health of pupils which teachers can control, and which, therefore, they should control.

But first let us correct a very prevalent delusion. If we should ask the first hundred persons we meet what is the chief danger to the health of children going to school, probably sixty or eighty of them would answer that the great danger is in *studying too much.* Many a fond mother amid her joy over the progress of a favorite child, trembles lest her darling should kill himself with study. But every close observer knows that this is a delusion. Students do sometimes hurt themselves by improper diet, by lack of exercise, by setting up nights to dance or read novels, or by vices of various kinds, and the effects of these are often wrongfully charged to the account of hard study. At any rate, whatever may be the case in the great hot-house school system of cities, where possibly some plants may be injured by too rapid forcing, there certainly is no serious danger of injuring children in our country schools with too much study. The recitations are too long, and the rivalry of pupils too feeble. We may therefore dismiss this idea that children are likely to be injured by too much study, as too remote a danger to be worth considering. The healthy love of play, and the inherent laziness of all human beings, old as well as young, will be protection enough against this danger, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred.

But there are other perils to health in the school room, not so well appreciated, perhaps, by parents, but far more real. There is, first, the danger from foul air. Most people who have not studied natural science seem to think that foul air is the same as warm air, and that cold air can never be impure. They cannot conceive of any reason for opening a window, except that the room is too warm. But teachers may be supposed to know that the life-giving oxygen of the air is constantly exchanged by the lungs for the life-destroying carbonic acid gas; and that a close school-room full of pupils, no matter how cold it is, will soon be poisoned with the carbonic acid gas thrown off from the lungs of teachers and pupils. Did you ever notice after the school-room had been closed, and school had been in session an hour or so, that you began to feel stupid and nervous? That queer, but common combination of feeling is caused by the foul air, and your pupils feel it just as much as you do. No wonder you find it hard work to keep order or to grind away on the lessons. The remedy is to let in fresh air.

But there is a danger in cold air, which is well understood by people in general. A draft of cold air on a feeble person, or

on one who is heated by fire or exercise, or on a bare head, is sure to bring on a cold. This is the reason people are afraid of ventilation, for fear of draughts of cold air. And their fear is a reasonable one, and does not deserve to be ridiculed, as it often is, by the advocates of ventilation. Ventilation ought to be secured; but it ought to be secured in such ways as to avoid the danger from draughts as much as possible. The simplest plan of ventilation in most school houses, is to lower the upper sash of each window on the windward side a little, and to raise the sash of each window on the leeward side about twice as much. By this means a very tolerable ventilation can be secured without danger from draughts.

Next to ventilation stands the need of proper temperature. As the stoves in our school houses are made and set, it is almost impossible to secure this. The law of health is to have uniform temperature, or if there is any difference that the head should be cool and the feet warm. The old-fashioned fire-place did warm feet and bodies as well as heads, and that by a better sort of heat than that which comes from a close stove. Stoves are necessarily set up from the floor several inches; and in school house architecture, for some inscrutible reason, stoves are generally set up on bricks or blocks several inches higher, so that the warm part of the stove is about on a level with the pupils knees; and as the tendency of hot air is always to rise, our heating apparatus is a most ingenious contrivance for keeping the children's feet cold and their heads hot. In rainy or sloppy weather, many of them, girls especially come with wet feet, which greatly aggravates the evil. Go into an ordinary school room on a wet or thawy day. or even on a cold day, and you will hear a constant coughing. This is distressing to a nervous teacher, because it is noise. It should be distressing to her, because it is the symptoms of catarrh and influenza, perhaps of pneumonia and consumption. What can the teacher do to remedy this? Perhaps she can persuade the board to let the stove down as near the level of the floor as possible. At any rate she can arrange seats around the stove and let the children warm and dry their feet, at the risk of a little extra noise. A very little care and tact will overcome all the disorder arising from this cause, and then the school room will be rid of that disagreeable coughing; and perhaps several pupils will be saved from severe sickness.

The health of pupils eyes needs attention. They need clear light, but not a glare of sunlight. Injury to the eyes comes hardly ever from too much reading, but from straining the eyes with too little light, or in a glare of sunlight or lamp-light. At least one in ten of the pupils in our common schools become near-sighted or weak-eyed from lack of proper care of his eyes in the school room. The teacher should never allow a glare of sunlight on any pupil's desk. Curtains should be let down, or the seat of the pupil temporarily changed. So also if any part of the school room becomes so dark as to strain the eyes of pupils, they should be allowed to move nearer the windows. It is unhealthy for little children to sit still a great while at a time. The restlessness of little ones in school after an hour or less is nature's call for a recess. Send them out to play. You will prevent disorder thereby, and have better lessons from the little ones. Or, if the parents foolishly object to these recesses, or if it is bad weather, you can do almost as well by some general exercise—singing is the best—and of music the "exercise songs" are the best of all for the little ones. But an ingenious teacher can easily invent general exercises. The great thing is to have variety, vivacity and change of pasture. Five minutes spent in this way, when the school has grown restive, is far better than five minutes of scolding and punishing for disorder, after it breaks out. And the health of pupils, and especially of the younger ones, is greatly promoted by giving them a frequent change of posture, either by recess or by general exercises.

Lastly, the health of pupils is promoted by cheerfulness on the part of the

teacher. "A merry heart doeth good like a medicine." And it is the duty of teachers to oil the dry machinery of instruction and discipline with cheerfulness and kindness. To do this the teacher himself must be healthy in body and mind. If the teacher constantly sets up nights to read novels or to go to dances, or is dyspeptic with eating fried pork and mince pies, or is so Pharisaic as to believe that laughter is a sin, or is so narrow a character as to be afraid to laugh or play for fear of losing his dignity, or is of a sour and morose disposition, then the school will be a prison, books will be hated, the teacher will be "that cross old thing," and much study will be a weariness to the flesh. Most children in such a case will be truants or idlers. But a few will wear themselves sick in the painful effort to do as a task what ought to be a joyous duty.

Teachers ought to be healthful themselves in body and mind, and ought to study the laws of health for themselves and their pupils. So far as the schoolroom is concerned the laws are few and simple. In brief, they are these:

1. Supply the room with plenty of fresh air, but in such a way as not to make any one set in a draught.

2. Keep the room comfortably warm, and the pupils' feet warm and dry.

3. Keep their eyes out of the glare of the sun and the gloom of a poorly lighted room.

4. Give the little ones frequent recesses, or frequent changes of work and of posture.

5. Be healthy and happy yourself, so that you can raise the moral tone of the school instead of depressing it.

[In the discussion which followed the reading of this paper, Mr. Lunn suggested that the teachers should attend to the sports of the pupils, to prevent undue violence, or sitting on the damp ground, or drinking when heated, or going out in the rain. And Mr. Earthman suggested that the teacher should require a proper position in writing and in studying, to avoid the tendency to near-sightedness; that girls should not be required to go higher than the second story, and that the yearly examination for promotion should be put at the close of the winter term for the health of pupils, as well as for other good reasons.]

A Day in the Kindergarten of Fraulein Held, at Nashua, N. H.

It was my lot a week or two ago to pass a day in Nashua, N. H., on a visit to a friend, and while there I improved the time by visiting a real Frœbel Kindergarten, a thing which I had long desired to do.

The foremost educators of the country have given their sanction to Frœbel's method for the education of very little children; and although the Kindergarten is well known by name, it is still quite seldom that one has the opportunity in this country to see the ideas of the great German educational reformer exemplified by a well trained and thoroughly competent Kindergartener. Many schools have adopted the name without any knowledge of the system, and their teachers, who have neither natural capacity, acquired culture, or proper training, are liable to do more harm than good, and bring into disrepute the name which Frœbel chose, as most expressive of his idea—Child's Garden—a garden where little children are the plants to be trained and nourished under the care of a faithful gardener.

We found Miss Held in a spacious room, sunny and cheerful, the floor neatly carpeted, the walls adorned with plants and vines and pleasant pictures of happy children, and located in the central portion of the city. She was surrounded by eighteen or twenty little children between the ages of three and seven, sitting at low tables, the tops of which are marked off into square inches. In their midst sat Miss Held, thoroughly mistress of the situation, and the impersonation of good sense and good humor combined. Kind, helpful, earnest, patient, and devoted to her work, she quickly wins the love and confidence of the children, even the most shy, and they all seemed to know that in her they had a very dear friend.

When we entered, the children were each engaged in forming a pretty star-shaped figure upon the tables in front of them, with colored plane tables cut into squares and variously shaped triangles. In this work they were guided by Miss Held, who told them where to place each piece. Each produced the same figure, differing in color. Each was then told to produce such a figure as they might choose, using all the pieces, and the result was truly wonderful in the beauty and variety of the different combinations. This is the method with all the occupations; first, the little ones are led, then they are allowed to go alone. Then came some very simple and easy exercises in drawing upon slates, marked off in squares like the blackboard, from which they copied their work. Then each made such picture as pleased them best. In all their work, they had the sympathy and encouragement of Miss Held, praising when it was done well, and helping on those who needed assistance.

After this occupation was concluded, folding doors were opened into a room still larger, also sunny and bright, and the children marched in to the music of pretty song, in which all joined. There for half an hour a series of games were played, uniting singing, simple gymnastics, and sport, to the intense delight of the participants, and the by no means slight enjoyment of the lookers-on. These games all have a meaning and an object, and are arranged with a view to the harmonious and healthy growth of the child's mental, moral and physical nature.

After a short lunch the occupations were resumed. When they first gathered around the tables, it seemed not unlike the assembling together of quite a number of ladies at a tea party, the conversation was so brisk and sociable, but in three or four minutes each child was intently engaged sewing in and out with colored worsteds. It was not like a school, there was no repression, no enforced silence, no fears of the raw hide or the teacher's frown, no books, no punishments; it was rather like a cheerful workshop, where each was absorbed in his work, not as a disagreeable task, but rather as a delightful occupation. Strict silence was by no means enjoined, and if after a few minutes of employment a happy thought occurred to any little worker, he was encouraged to speak it out, and when any one was pleased he was allowed to laugh. While the rest were at work, it occurred to one bright-eyed little fellow that he would like to recite a verse; leave was granted, and we undoubtedly got the benefit of his last exercise at the Sunday school. A little girl followed with a verse that was evidently original, and none the less interesting for that; and then one volunteered a song. The charming innocence and unconscious simplicity displayed in their little interludes, were fascinating. There was apparently no thought of showing off, nothing got up beforehand for the occasion, but they were spontaneous outbursts of their happy, childish natures, mingled with an evident desire to do something that should meet with the approval of their friend, Miss Held. Still the work went on, and the beginning of very pretty designs was wrought out. The children seemed happy but not boisterous, attentive to their play-work, but not stunned into stupid apathy. It was order, and such order as seemed the outgrowth of the individual will of each child. And yet they had only been together two or three months at the longest, and most of them a much less time. How such order could be brought out of the chaos that must have existed the first day, is a mystery which one could hope to solve only after frequent and prolonged visits.

The occupations are varied every day, and we only regret that our stay was too short to permit us to see the "Building," "Weaving," "Peas Work," "Modeling in Clay," and other works which they do.

We visited the garden, where each little one had his separate bed in which he could hoe and dig and watch the growth of his products to his heart's content. The spot was embowered in vines and several varieties of flowers, yet remained unharmed by the early frosts. One little fellow raised quite a supply of squashes

and beets, and still another had obtained a wonderful growth of tomatoes. A real garden is considered quite essential to this system of education, and no Kindergarten is considered complete without one.

Frœbel thought education should begin at the first moment of conscious intelligence in the mother's arms; he established schools for the training of nurses, and invented the Kindergarten as a bridge between the nursery and the school. It is not intended to supplant the primary school, but rather to prepare the child for it, and it is the unanimous testimony of the most competent instructors, that those who have had the longest training in the Kindergarten, make the most rapid and satisfactory progress in the school.

This Kindergarten, the first established in New Hampshire, owes its origin to the active exertions of Henry B. Atherton, Esq., who has interested the people in the matter, collected the pupils, and assumed the entire pecuniary responsibility of its management. This he has done, in the first instance that his own children might have the advantage of such instruction, and again, from his study of Frœbel's educational ideas, becoming convinced that this is the only rational plan of primary education, he thinks the surest and speediest way to secure its general adoption is to demonstrate its usefulness and necessity by the actual working of a well conducted Kindergarten. The practical illustration of the "new education" thus afforded, is better than volumes of mere theoretical discussion. He has been peculiarly fortunate in securing the co-operation of Fraulein Anna Held, who is an accomplished Kindergartener. A native of Berlin, she graduated at the best young ladies' school in that city, and having become interested in Frœbel's method of education, she went through a course of instruction in the seminary for nurses, established at Berlin upon Frœbel's plan, by Lina Morgenstern. Subsequently she attended the Kindergarten Normal School in the same city, where she passed the examination and received her diploma after a year's course of study. Miss Held has traveled extensively in Great Britain and on the continent, and speaks with ease both Italian and French, as well as English. She is earnestly devoted to her profession and heartily fond of little children. Being an accomplished musician, she is able to give valuable instruction in music to the little ones. We noticed that they sang several simple German songs with as much readiness and apparent enjoyment as they did those in their mother tongue.

The Kindergarten develops a capacity for quick and clear perception of form, size, color and sound; it trains all the senses, gives skill to the fingers, health to the body, cheerfulness to the mind, trains the moral faculties, and is a primary school for design, where the artistic tendencies of the child are cherished and cultivated, so as materially to increase the means for his future usefulness and happiness. None of his faculties are allowed to die out through disuse.

I believe this day's visit to a Kindergarten in the heart of New England, has given me a clue to the secret of the progress and power of that good European nation, which by the skillful training and thorough education of its soldiers, its men and its mothers, has been enabled to set a watch upon the Rhine, to foil the power of ignorance, and to take a foremost stand among the powers of Christendom.—G. L. A., *in the Black River (Vt.) Gazette.*

A Scotch student, supposed to be deficient in judgment, was asked by a professor, in the course of his examination, how he would discover a fool? "By the questions he would ask," was the prompt and highly suggestive reply.

Bad luck is simply a man with his hands in his pockets and his pipe in his mouth, looking on to see how it will come out. Good luck is a man of pluck, with his sleeves rolled up, and working to make it come out right.

In order to improve the mind, we ought less to learn than to contemplate.—*Descartes.*

A good book is the best of friends—the same to-day and forever.

We are as liable to be corrected by books as by companions.—*Fielding.*

THE ATLANTIC GAINING ON US.—It has been proved that the whole Pacific coast, especially California with all its mountains, is perpetually rising, and that at a comparatively rapid rate. The land containing in its bosom our great American lakes is slowly sinking, while Southern Indiana, Kentucky and the surrounding states are rising. Geological investigations prove that our great lakes, except Ontario, had formerly a southern outlet; until, by gradual northern depressions and southern upheavals, a northern outlet was formed from Lake Erie into Ontario, about 40,000 years ago. This outlet, the Niagara River, is still wearing away its channel. The division line of the watershed south of the lakes and the Mississippi Valley has since been steadily traveling southward; and when Chicago recently turned the water of Lake Michigan through the Chicago River into the Mississippi Valley, the old state of affairs was artificially re-established.

New Jersey is sinking, with New York City and Long Island, at the established rate of about 16 inches per century. The coast of Texas is ascending at a comparatively rapid rate, some observers stating that it is as much as 40 or 50 feet in the last half century.

Combining these observations with the results of the recent deep soundings of the United States steamer Tuscarora in the Pacific Ocean, we find that the bed is evidently a sunken continent, abounding in volcanic mountains some 12,000 feet high, many of them not reaching the surface of the ocean, and others which do so, forming the numberless islands of the Pacific. The study of the coral rocks proves this sinking has been taking place during several centuries, and observations of the coast will undoubtedly reveal the fact that it has not ceased.—*Scientific American.*

THERE is nothing so unreasonable as infancy, except the matured stages of life.—*Jean Ingelow.*

EDUCATION, in its deeper sense, is not the equalizer but the discerner of men.—*Ruskin.*

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

DISTRICTS—DISTRICT MEETINGS.

Q. Has a district a legal existence if no record can be found of the call for the first meeting, or of the proceedings thereof? I find merely a record of the election of officers.

A. The order for the formation of the district and the record of the first election would raise a reasonable presumption that the first meeting was duly called and held. In the absence of any other records parol evidence would be admissable to show that the district has a legal existence, if the fact were called in question.

Q. If the first meeting and organization of a district takes place in January, can the action be considered legal, under the latter part of section 11?

A. It is the order of formation which is forbidden to take effect between the 1st of December and the 1st of April. The organization is another matter, and may lawfully take place at any time of year.

Q. We adjourned, at an annual meeting for one year. Some say we cannot hold any special meetings meanwhile. How is it?

A. The notion is simply absurd. Your adjournment for one year was unmeaning, and in no way affects your right to hold special meetings, as usual.

Q. If a district meeting adjourns for a month, can a special meeting be held in the meantime?

A. There is no good reason why it might not. Something might arise to render it very important to meet sooner than the time adjourned to. Care should be taken, of course, to state the business to be done, and to give full notice. Questions like this may generally be resolved by the aid of a little common sense. It should be understood, that while laws are often enough obscure, ambiguous, or seemingly inconsistent in their provisions, they are not full of concealed prohibitions, and need not have any more

difficulties of interpretation put upon them than they already possess.

Q. Does a district become extinct by voting to have no school, and neglecting to elect officers?

A. It does not; it becomes disorganized, when it ceases to have any officers, and in such case the town board may call a meeting to re-organize, under section 4. A district becomes extinct only when extinguished, under section 16.

Q. Should a new district, which has had no school, make a report?

A. This is proper. The number of school children and perhaps other facts can be reported, and the town clerk will thus have the name and address of the district clerk.

Q. If a district maintains no school, should the children be enumerated—and where?

A. The clerk should enumerate the children and make a report, although there is no school.

Q. Our district voted that "no teacher should be hired to teach this school who lives within four miles of the school house"—is this legal?

A. The vote amounts to nothing more than an expression of opinion that it is not well to take a teacher too near home; but the board will do as they judge best.

Q. Can a district supply the school with text-books by direct tax?

A. This is lawful under the law passed last winter—Chap. 315.

Q. The board bought some charts, which the district don't want; have we got to pay for them?

A. Yes, if purchased legally, under section 48, as amended by chapter 281 of 1873.

DISTRICT OFFICERS.

Q. We elected a treasurer, at our annual meeting, and after other business, adjourned two weeks. The treasurer elect did not file his bond in ten days, claiming that he had ten days after the adjournment to do it in. Another treasurer was appointed, and both claim the office. Which is entitled to it?

A. The one appointed, of course. A treasurer elect has "ten days after his election" in which to file his bond, not ten days after the time to which the meeting may adjourn.

Q. The director resigned, and the clerk and newly elected treasurer appointed one, but the treasurer had not filed his bond. Was the appointment proper and legal?

A. No; the treasurer elect had no power to act until his bond was approved and filed. Had this been done before the director resigned, the board would have filled the vacancy. As it was the town clerk would have to appoint both a director and a treasurer, but could not do it until twenty days after annual meeting.

Q. Our treasurer uses the district money, and puts his note in its place, and the clerk draws orders and the treasurer pays them without my endorsement, as director; what can be done?

A. Read section 134 of the School Code.

Q. Must a treasurer, if reelected, renew his bond, or will the old one do?

A. The old bond is good only for the first term. It must be renewed. The same bondsman may be taken again, if thought proper.

THE SCHOOL HOUSE.

Q. Would it be lawful for us to rent the upper room of our school-house which is not used?

A. No authority is given by law to do this. If done by the unanimous consent of all concerned, nobody else would be likely to interfere.

Q. Is it lawful to have two or more school-houses and schools in one district?

A. This is done sometimes, where the schools are graded. In an ordinary district but one school and house is contemplated; but if the district is quite large in territory, and two houses will better accommodate, it must be considered lawful to have them. One part of the district may have many small scholars, and the other part many large ones.

TAXES.

Q. In case a tax voted at a "first meeting" is not returned to the town clerk in season to be included in the assessment roll, what can be done?

A. A special meeting may be held, the tax rescinded, the list recalled and a new tax voted, assessed and collected, as provided in sections 64 to 75.

ENUMERATION OF SCHOLARS.

Q. Where should scholars be enumerated who are away from home in another district attending school and doing chores?

A. Every child or person of school age should be enumerated in his own district, where his legal school residence is, although he may be away temporarily at work, or even attending school. Care should be taken by district clerks not to enumerate persons simply because sojourning in the district. Many in this way get put down twice.

WAGES OF THE TEACHER.

Q. We voted to have eight months school, and to pay but $60 a month. The board has hired for $80. Was it not bound by the vote of the district?

A. You could fix the length of the term, and decide whether the board should hire a male or female teacher, but you had no power to determine what wages should be paid. The board exercises its own discretion in that matter. It might not be prudent to engage to pay considerably higher wages than the known sentiment of the district approves of, and if no suitable teacher could be found at the price expected by the district, it might be well to call a special meeting, but the board has the final power to determine.

WOMEN AS VOTERS—WOMEN AS OFFICERS.

Q. Does not the new law, which makes women eligible as district officers, make them voters also, at least for school officers? I contend that it does, but we desire your official opinion.

A. The Constitution of the State (Art. III., Sec. 1,) limits the right of suffrage at any election to males. To make women voters requires a change in the Constitution. Whether the law of last winter, which makes them eligible to office without first making them voters, is consistent, is an open question. Privileges and duties should be reciprocal.

Q. Last night we elected a district treasurer and then elected his wife as clerk. Is she eligible?

A. Yes, if a "woman of the age of twenty-one years and upward, residing in the district." The wisdom of such a family arrangement is another question.

REGISTRY OF VOTERS.

Q. Must not a man be registered to be qualified to vote at a district meeting?

A. The requirement of registry in order to vote at a general election is not absolute, but may be supplied by affidavit. In other words, registry is not to be regarded as a necessary qualification for voting, but as a prudential arrangement to make known who are qualified. A person may be a legal voter in a school district whose name has not yet been registered in any election district. He may have come from some other part of the State, and may have neglected to register or vote; or may have come of age since the last election. But his vote may always be challenged at any district meeting. (Sec. 9.)

TOWN SYSTEM.

Q. Would it not be better if each subdistrict retained the director, and if the clerk and director hired the teacher?

A. This would not work well. The object of the system is to make the town a unit for school purposes. If a school system were being established in a new state, it would be unwise to constitute the town board as our law provides, which is a sort of concession to the old system. A board of few members is more efficient than a large one.

Q. May not a town under the town system pass a by-law, under Chap. IV., Sec. 3 of the Revised Statutes, compelling attendance upon school?

A. This chapter cannot be regarded as having any reference to schools or education.

FREE HIGH SCHOOLS.

Q. Under this new law, does the State Superintendent prescribe the text-books to be used?

A. No, merely the course of study.

Q. What is the standard of admission?

A. The pupil must read well in the "Fourth Reader;" be able to spell "or-

dinary words of the same;" "write a fair, legible hand;" in arithmetic, understand the "fundamental rules and common and decimal fractions;" know the geography of the "United States," and grammar "to syntax," in "Green's Introduction or its equivalent." "Not less than ten test questions in each branch should be given, and correct answers to at least 75 per cent. of these should be required."

Q. Would it not be advisable to relax this standard in some cases?

A. No, this would not do; it is low enough alrrady. If the scholars cannot come to it, wait a year, or part of a year.

Q. Can we charge tuition to foreign scholars?

A. Certainly; the school is "free" only to those within the district, town or city establishing it.

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT.

Q. Our superintendent is known to exercise extreme partiality, granting certificates to persons of his own religious faith, even without examination, and refusing them to others well qualified, because not of his faith. What can be done?

A. Complaint can be made to the Judge of the circuit court, who can remove for cause. (Sec. 90.)

Q. In case a county superintendent resigns, in the first year of his term, will a successor elected in November hold office for a full term or only for the remaining year of the unexpired term? Please see 3 Wis., 783.

A. There is no fault to be found with the decision you refer to as it regards an election to fill a vacancy in the office of sheriff. But in regard to the office of county superintendent, which was created after all the other county offices, the question is, first, what does the statute provide? It provides (Sec. 86) that "there shall be chosen * * in 1861, and *biennially* thereafter a county superintendent for *each county* of the state," etc. And each superintendent, thus chosen, is to hold his office "two years." It is the evident design of the law, not only that the terms shall be two years, but that they shall be preserved uniform through the state, for it requires an election for "each county" biennially, from and after 1861. Now then as to vacancies: "Section 89 provides that the state superintendent shall fill vacancies, the person appointed to hold till the first of January following. If the vacancy occurs in the second year of a term, no question arises. There will be an election in November preceding. under section 86, for a new term. But if it occurs in the first year, then as the statute creating the office provides only for biennial elections, in a certain order, we must look elsewhere for the authority to elect in an intermediate year; and this is found to exist by consulting Chap. VII. R. S., Secs. 3, 5, 99 and 100 (3, 6, 120 and 121, Taylor's).

PRESIDENT AND VICE PRESIDENT.

Q. Can both President and Vice-President be elected from the same State?

A. The constitution does not forbid this; it merely requires that when the electors of any State cast their ballots for these officers, one of the two "shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves." There is no probability that both will ever be elected from the same State.

ARE ALIENS ELIGIBLE TO OFFICE?

Q. Can a man not a citizen of the United States hold the office of town clerk?

A. In the case, *Off vs. Smith* (14 W. R. 497), it was held that "it is an acknowledged principle which lies at the foundation [of popular governments], and the enforcement of which needs neither the aid of statutory or constitutional enactments or restrictions, that the government is instituted by the citizens for their liberty and protection, and that it is to be administered and its powers and functions exercised only by *them*, and through their agency." But in a subsequent case, (*Schuett vs. Murray*, 28 Wis. 97), it was held that "an alien who has not declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States may be *elected* to the office of clerk of the county board of supervisors, and, in case his disability is removed before the commencement of the term of office for which he is elected, will be entitled to enter upon and hold such office." This, of course, would apply to an alien elected town clerk. He must remove his disability in order to enter upon and *hold* the office.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

THE STUDY OF GERMAN.

The August issue of the JOURNAL contained an article under the above title, reprinted from the *National Teachers' Monthly*, in which it appeared as an editorial. This article has given considerable offense to some of our German fellow citizens, having been severely criticised in one or two leading German papers. It was even the occasion of somewhat bitter personal and political references to one of the editors of the JOURNAL, who was not merely made to endorse the article in question, but in at least one instance actually represented (*O tempora, O mores!*) as himself the author thereof. The slightest glance—even by a partisan politician—shows that it is a selection, and that due credit is given to the source whence it was obtained. Before proceeding to a brief consideration of some of its statements, it may be well to say that the editor referred to—or, in plain English, the State Superintendent—never even read or noticed the offending selection until his attention was called to it more than a month after the JOURNAL for August was published. Owing to illness he was able to have nothing to do with the preparation of that issue.

While the article in question contains one important truth, that truth is so enveloped in a cloud of prejudiced and offensive statements and mis-statements that, to candid Americans and Germans alike, one of the chief impressions conveyed is that of immoderate, ill-tempered and unjustifiable reflections upon the whole German speaking portion of our population. To say that "in many instances it (German) is introduced for political purposes, and the teachers employed are the proteges of office-holders whose only recommendation is the vote at their backs which gives them official existence"; that "the study itself is a failure everywhere, even in the private schools where nothing else is attempted to be taught"; that "reason and moralize as you may, to children German is Dutch and nothing but Dutch, and the more you harass them with it the more Dutchy and disagreeable it becames"; that "*German children are ashamed to know it*"; that "every attempt to keep German in as a branch of common school education has exhibited the cunning of Bismark combined with the physical force of the Prussian army"; that (in substance) the teachers of the branch are largely incapable of maintaining proper order and securing due respect, and that these must consequently be secured by "the poor English teachers" if they would not incur the "risk of losing their official heads"; that the demand of a foreign element to have their language taught is not only an absurdity, but "the object is sectarian at bottom," "an exiled people feeling that they can preserve their religion only as long as they preserve their language"; that (by implication) wherever German has been introduced into city public schools, it has been always and only for "political reasons,"—to say all these things is surely to prove that the author writes in the heated and misty atmosphere of partisanship rather than in the "cool, dry light" of reason and common sense. The animus that inspired the above expressions is so clearly that of uncandor and exaggeration that we will not take the trouble to show wherein they are unjust and abusive. We desire simply to call attention to what we have alluded to above as the one important truth contained in the article, and to define clearly our own position on this question of German in the public schools.

The formal study of German has no legitimate place in the lower classes of these or any other English schools. Until facility in reading and writing English is acquired, no foreign language should enter in to create confusion and defeat one of the chief ends of the public school—a correct knowledge and use of the spoken and written language of the country. This we hold, with the *National Teachers' Monthly*, to be indisputably correct, for pedagogical reasons. Probably no intelligent German will deny this. Certainly we have yet to meet the first one who holds a different view, and we

have conversed with many upon the subject. Of prime importance, in this country, is a good acquaintance with the common language. If a person can learn but one language, this should by all means here be, if possible, the English language. This is the dictate of the plainest common sense.

Hence it follows that whatever seriously interferes with this all important object is improper. If an American public school does not seek, first of all, to give the elements of a good *English* education to all its pupils, it is manifestly wrong and in need of reformation. If German, or any other language, is taught to the pupils at so early a stage as to interfere with a good acquisition of the general tongue, then this foreign language should be deferred until a later and a safer period of the school life of the children.

From the article of the *Monthly*, and from other sources, we infer that German *is* found too early in the course of study in some schools. This may be the case in Chicago, and it may be the case in some of the cities of Wisconsin, and even in some of our rural neighborhoods. On this point we here call attention to the testimony—second-hand, it is true, but we doubt not valuable—of Prof. Salisbury, as presented in his article on "The District School Curriculum," read at the recent meeting of the State Teachers' Association, and printed in our present issue. We could ourselves detail, also at second-hand, abundance of similar testimony. Statements similar to those presented by him have been repeatedly made to us by County Superintendents.

There is here plainly indicated a wrong, but we seriously doubt, after considerable reflection, whether the legal permission, referred to by Mr. Salisbury, is in any sense the cause of this wrong. Doubtless the state of things he deplores existed in all its injurious extent before the enactment of the law allowing instruction for one hour a day in a foreign language. Indeed, the commentary on this law in the School Code seems clearly to imply that the law was designed to be restrictive rather than to be an original license. The language is: "The intention of this law is not to encourage, but rather to limit the introduction of other languages than the English into common schools." The remedy for the wrong referred to will not be found, as the Professor appears to believe, in a repeal of the law, but rather in the general enlightenment that gives to the newly arrived and less intelligent portion of our foreign population juster views of their relations to a new country, and of the true functions of the public school system they find therein. Even at our present rate of educational progress, the second generation of this fractional portion of our citizens will be so different from the first, so Americanized, so imbued with the common national spirit, that the schools they shall sustain will scarcely present among their faults the one under consideration. Let it not be forgotten that for such reforms as this, time is indispensable. Peaceful social revolutions are not wrought in a day.

If, however, remedy is sought in legislation against an unwise and illegal devotion of time in the public schools, let us seek it rationally in *a stricter supervision* that shall make impossible a violation of law to such an extent that "in whole townships the intelligent teaching of English is hardly known." *Here is the really weak spot in our school system.* Put in each county a man qualified to carry out there faithfully the will and wisdom of the whole people—qualified by culture, by ability, and *by his independent circumstances.* Let not the tenure of his office be dependent upon the facility with which he cultivates the favor of politicians or avoids the ill-will of the ignorant and the prejudiced; but let it rather be dependent upon the impartial and inflexible manner in which he carries out in his locality *the sovereign will of the State* as embodied in its statutes. This will directs him to license no teacher who is not qualified to give intelligent instruction in the English language. This will directs that no public money shall be granted to districts in which schools

have not been properly and legally conducted. Let the Superintendent see to it that the will of the State be sacredly observed in his county, and such gross violation as that under consideration will be impossible.

It is understood thus far that we think a foreign language has no place in the primary and lower intermediate classes of a public school. If such languages are now taught in these classes, it is at the expense of instruction in English and ought to be discontinued. In this we think nearly all educational men are agreed. This was the unanimous verdict of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association, substantially expressed in a resolution passed at its recent annual meeting, and elsewhere the subject of editorial comment. This we believe to be the verdict of nearly all intelligent foreigners who have permanently cast their lot with us in America. We have yet to meet the first cultivated German who holds a different view.

Having thus expressed the opinion that the public schools should, in the elementary grades, devote their entire energies to the cultivation of the best possible knowledge of English, the national tongue, and, of course, to the acquisition of the usual adjunctive branches, mathematical, geographical, etc., we are now prepared to express our appreciation of the German language for the higher classes, and our conviction that it might profitably be made a much more common study in those classes than it now is. So far from desiring to exclude it from the public schools, we would ask that it be held in higher honor, and find many more diligent and enthusiastic cultivators than at present, among the pupils of the higher grades. Much more than the sentiments of patriotism can the Germans present as a reason for desiring to preserve their language in a foreign country. The language itself, and the literature it embodies, are their best excuse. *These are worth preserving* there. They are so admirable in themselves that an absence of a desire to preserve them would be inexcusable dishonor. The German rivals the peerless Greek in its copiousness, its flexibility, and its vigor. As a culture study, it offers in a modern tongue, to a great extent, the advantages of the classical languages. French and the other Romance languages are vapid and tame beside it. Our own English is inferior to it in more than one respect. Then the literature embodied in German —how can its wealth be properly expressed? What poets, philosophers, historians and scholars have contributed to its creation!

Can greater praise be said of any people than that they are the teachers of other nations? Germany, to-day, is the world's vast High School. All nations send to her tribute of their young men. Her unrivalled universities are filled with them. Her general system of instruction is the envy and the model of the world.

Do we over rate the Germans and their language? Have we been without justification in urging upon young men and women for years past the wisdom of an acquaintance with the language, literature and history of this wonderful people—a combination, as they seemed to us, of Greek acuteness and versatality, with Roman strength and persistence? No, we *justly* admire their language, their achievements in literature, science, and war. We have watched with intense interest their recent history—a chapter unrivalled in tho world's annals. We have watched with profound admiration and respect the brilliant career of their great American representative, now the foremost orator and statesman of our own country, —a man so eloquent, so scholarly, so independent and self-poised, so thoroughly an American and yet so fully a German, that he seems to put this country under special obligation to his fatherland for the gift of a character so unique and so useful to us at the present peculiar period of our national history.

No exclusive worshipper of the past, riding no hobby, ancient or modern, believing that the world to-day is far wiser and better upon the whole than it ever was before, but holding that every age

and every nation has something peculiarly valuable for the student, we have not found our heroes only in the story of Greece and Rome. They are scattered all over history. They lead noble lives, and speak in noble languages to-day. We find strength and joy in their contemplation. The living Carl is even more of an inspiration to us than the dead Demosthenes, the living Gladstone than the dead Cicero.

In conclusion, we respectfully suggest, dazzled as the eyes of the modern world are by the scientific lights of the day, that, after all, the peculiarly "proper study of mankind is man." The foremost of our race, their languages, their thoughts, their deeds, their experiences, their characters,—these things seem to us nobler and more useful subjects of investigation than others. They appear to lie nearer the Divine Intelligence. They concern us more closely. They make us thoughtful and broaden our manhood. Therefore History, Language, Literature, Philosophy, Political Economy,—all the so-called "Humanities"—while other things are important, may we not rightly hold these more important as studies that cultivate and strengthen human character?

FREE HIGH SCHOOLS.

Already quite a number of High Schools have been organized under the law of last winter. Others are in process of organization, and not a few places are considering the promised advantages of the system as applicable to themselves. By winter a sufficient number of schools will probably be in existence to test the value of the law, and nearly or quite exhaust the appropriation allowed for the first year. Doubtless many more than this number could then be chronicled had not the issue of the High School circular been delayed until August. Exact information as to the nature and object of the law has been before the school officers of the State but a comparatively short time. This is perhaps well for its success, inasmuch as there will now probably be no disappointment in the amount of State bounty expected for individual schools.

The law already most happily illustrates the wisdom of the principle of State aid stimulating local action. This is seen in the special efforts made by localities to improve existing schools—to secure better teachers, add to the convenience and value of buildings, establish an efficient gradation, and above all to encourage the attendance of pupils from without the usual limits.

The courses of study as given in the circular have been received with much favor, and generally adopted with little or no change.

It has been a source of some surprise to us, that from two or three places have come expressions of disappointment at the high standard (!) for admission. We think the standard very low. It could not consistently be placed lower, and the superintendent will in no case consent to any reduction therefrom.

We wish here to call attention to the necessity of a thorough examination of pupils who are candidates for the High School. This examination should of course be made under the general direction of the H. S. Board, which must be held responsible for its efficiency. The questions may be prepared, and the examinations conducted by the principal of the school, who is the most proper person to perform this duty; or, in case of his absence, by the county superintendent, or any other qualified person or persons designated by the Board.

We hope to publish in our next issue some extracts from letters showing the favor with which the law has been received. and the spirit of improvement it has already in many places evoked.

The High School Circular, neatly printed in pamphlet form, was published nearly two months ago. Copies will still be sent to any address on application.

We recently had the pleasure of visiting, at Viroqua, the largest Institute yet held this season. The enrollment was nearly 160. Next month we hope to give a few notes of our trip to Monroe and Vernon counties.

WOMEN AS SCHOOL OFFICERS.

We are pleased to learn that to some extent—we know not yet how great—women have, at the recent annual district meetings, been elected to membership in school boards. We are also gratified to note that in at least three counties women have been nominated for the office of County Superintendent of Schools.

As we have hitherto contended, there is no good reason why a competent woman should not, and several good reasons why she should, serve in the capacity of outside supervisor of schools, as well as that of inside teacher. But this question is scarcely any longer within the pale of discussion. It is already settled by the experience of other states. Women have there proved on trial to be every way as successful as men in the actual work of school supervision.

We doubt not that this is due to the fact that only very superior women have there been elected to office. No others should be, and no others in general can be so elected, for obvious reasons.

We know nothing personally of the character and fitness of the female nominees in the counties of our own State, above referred to, except in Walworth Co. Miss Etta Carle, who has there formally accepted the nomination for the chief school office, we have good reason to know is eminently qualified for the position, in culture, ability and experience. She has taught with excellent success in the Normal School at Whitewater, and elsewhere in that county, as well as at the east. She has the rare honor of holding a permanent State Certificate, granted at the annual State examination of 1871, and is therefore in this respect the peer of such men as Prof. Shaw, of Madison, who obtained his at the same ordeal, and Prof. Salisbury, who bore off the like honor as a member of the next succeeding class. Miss Carle and Miss Martha A. Terry were the first two ladies in the State to achieve this distinction, and but four in all have ever succeeded in obtaining this higher certificate.

Hence there can be no question of Miss Carle's ability to perform the duties of the office with credit to herself, profit to the schools of the county, and satisfaction to the people thereof generally. We both hope and believe she will be elected.

It might be added that, so far as our knowledge goes, the experiment of female Superintendents has, in other States, generally been tried in wealthy and highly intelligent counties like Walworth: for example, in Winnebago county, Illinois, and Floyd county, Iowa.

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

In the biennial political campaign into which the people of the State are again entering, we hope the important local interests of education will receive due attention. The healthy activity and advancement of school interests in each county depend very largely upon the efficiency of the Superintendent. The best available man should be selected in every instance. Party considerations should not have the least weight before the question of superior fitness. Select and elect the best man, be he "Republican," "Democrat," or "Reformer." The sacred interests of education ought to be everywhere and always free from partisan influences. We are pleased to know that the people are getting to be very generally of this opinion.

Among the Superintendents of the past two years have been many able and well qualified men. If these have consented to be continued in office, we doubt not the good sense of the people will re-elect many of them. Frequent changes in the office are injurious. The experience an officer has acquired in one term is extremely valuable to him, and renders his services far more efficient the second term,—i. e., if he be the right man for the place, with an earnest heart, a clear head, and the proper pedagogical antecedents.

The changes heretofore have been far too frequent. These, however, have been as largely due to the insufficient salary paid as to any other cause, as is clearly shown by the fact that within a little

more than eighteen months past, a dozen Superintendents have resigned. This unwise instability will continue so long as a man well qualified for the office can obtain a larger salary as principal of a single school than as Superintendent of a hundred.

Valuable as the County Superintendency now is, it should be rendered invaluable by a few simple but wise reforms.

DISTRICT SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

In the proceedings of the recent meeting of the State Teachers' Association appears the following report, which was approved and adopted:

The special committee to which was referred the subject of "The District School Curriculum," report the following resolutions:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Association that the primary district schools of the State should give formal instruction only in reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, and grammar; but that incidentally instruction should also be given in history, drawing and botany.

Resolved, That this Association decidedly disapproves of the teaching in those schools of any other than the English language.

We faintly confess to a fear that these resolutions are not of much account, considered in any strict sense. A "district school" is something so indefinite that to prescribe any single course of study for it is like prescribing one course of reading for a hundred individuals of different ages, attainments, tastes and occupations. The log building in the newly settled wilderness, with its dozen or fifteen children, and the palatial structure we visited a few months ago, at Manitowoc, costing $40,000, and with a graded enrollment of 600 pupils, are both "district schools." The one carries the children no farther than to a limited knowledge of orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic and geography. The other instructs pupils in all the studies that prepare for college. Between these extremes are the schools in all sorts of villages, and all descriptions of country neighborhoods. Is it not absurd to attempt a "district school curriculum" suited to all these? Shall Civil Government, Algebra, and German not be taught to any of the six hundred? Shall these studies not go into the log school house? The difficulty of generalizing here is plainly apparent. We must know what *is* the "district school" before we can construct its curriculum. If it is a thousand things one curriculum will not answer for all.

Probably the generalized idea of Prof. Salisbury, when preparing his paper, was the ungraded country school with one teacher. Yet great diversity would be found even under this definition, and no one curriculum prove suitable for all districts.

The term "primary," in the first resolution above quoted, tends to show that the reference is to the lowest grade of district schools, and hence to those of country neighborhoods under charge of a single teacher.

Accepting this as a mere rough generalization, it is perhaps wise to say what ought and what ought not to be taught in "primary district schools." With one teacher, a multitude of classes, little time, and many other untoward circumstances, it may be safely asserted in general that the first resolution contains all the subjects that should be taught in such schools. The general assertion may also be made, with equal wisdom, that only the *English* language should be taught therein.

But this action of the Association may perhaps be best summed up as a general protest against the modern tendency to enlarge the common school curriculum to unwieldly proportions by the introduction of Civil Government, the Natural Sciences, etc. This is the "moral" of the report adopted.

PROF. A. H. PORTER, of Palmyra, has in the last number of the *Enterprise* of that village, an excellent communication on the subject of "Text Books," which we hope to find room for next month. His views are eminently sensible and strongly presented. We are especially pleased to find in the article an antidote to one of the two educational heresies

which Editor Dow delights to present in the paper about every other week—namely, "State uniformity of text-books," and "Abolition of the County Superintendency."

No paper among our exchanges has a more ably conducted, varied and interesting "Educational Column." We take pleasure in its weekly perusal. Mr. Porter, who we presume has something to do with it, is a thoroughly wide-awake, progressive, and capable teacher, whom we hope Palmyra duly appreciates. We wish, however, he might be as successful in eradicating the above mentioned heresies from the *Enterprise* sanctum as he is in exorcising all the grim giants of Ignorance from the High School. The editor would then receive our blessing *every* week for a paper unqualifiedly excellent.

A CURIOSITY OF LITERATURE.

We have naturally been gratified at the favor with which the last Annual Report of the State Superintendent has been received, not only in this, but also in other states. Among the educational journals of the latter, we recall at least three of the first class—those of Pennsylvania, Michigan and Illinois—which did us the honor to reprint somewhat lengthy extracts, giving us, of course, due acknowledgment. We must, however, credit a New England State with the highest compliment yet paid us. New Hampshire republishes, not in a school journal, but in the official Annual Report of her Superintendent, just issued, our entire article on "A State School Tax." She does this, too, in an especially complimentary and unique way. *She prints it as original*, thereby confessing that *it was as good as she could do herself*. There are, of course, a few changes made, especially in the illustrations, to adapt the article to her own longitude. Beyond these it is a pretty faithful reprint. Allusion to Wisconsin or her Superintendent there is none. We appreciate it. Any such allusion would have largely spoiled the compliment.

We take off our hat and make our best bow to New Hampshire. May the argument move her granite hills to bounteous liberality for education.

THE DEBATING CLUB.

It may be interesting to know that the debating club is prospering even beyond the anticipations of its projectors. We would urge upon the teachers, both male and female, to join this club, and take part in its exercises. There is no accomplishment more to be desired by an American than the ability to think and effectively express his thoughts before an audience. This is a gift especially to be coveted by the teacher, and one that will add much to his efficiency. We trust that this club may be well sustained during the coming winter.

The above is clipped from the educational column of the *Lodi Valley News*, conducted by Prof. A. A. Miller, principal of the Lodi High School. A like enterprise we commend to the young people of every village and hamlet in the State. If you have not done so, organize at once a Literary Society. Have debates and other literary exercises. Provide for an occasional lecture. Read, investigate, think, write, talk,—these are excellent means of culture, within the reach of all, whether within or without college walls. Try it, ye who have not; continue it, ye who have begun it.

German in Public Schools.—In addition to remarks made elsewhere, we quote a couple of paragraphs from the last number of the *National Teachers' Monthly:*

As to the point at issue there seems to be a variety of sentiment, even among our critic's own countrymen. Senator Carl Schurz, for instance, in a recent speech, objects to such race manifestations as a dangerous element in the politics of the country: "He had never been in favor of having the Germans in this country clan together, and become separated from the other elements of the population. In his view the Germans here were all Americans. Their interests were those of the people, their duties those of the people, and they should be banded together and united only by the common bond of American patriotism."

And a Berlin correspondent says of the practice of the Fatherland itself: "Leading statesmen of the Liberal party here quite agree that their countrymen in America are absurd in calling for German in American schools. For instance, Professor Gneist, a great authority in Liberal statesmanship, said to me the other day: 'We insist that German shall be the native tongue in Posen and Elsass, as well as in Preussen.'"

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

LECTURES ON ART, at Oxford (1870).

ARIADNE FLORENTINA: Six Lectures on Engraving (1872).

FRONDES AGRESTES: Readings in "Modern Painters."

MORNINGS IN FLORENCE: Studies of Christian Art. By JOHN RUSKIN. New York: John Wiley & Son.

The two courses of lectures indicated above were delivered by Mr. Ruskin, in the years named, in his capacity as Professor of Fine Art in Oxford University. The "Frondes Agrestes," are selections from his first work, "Modern Painters," made by a lady, and published, with a short preface by the author, in that form. We have read pretty much all that Ruskin has written, and always with increasing interest and delight. In fact, having once began on his "Modern Painters," we could not desist till we had gone through everything then accessible from his pen in the beautiful volumes published by the Wileys.

Ruskin is emphatically an author to be read through and through, as recommended in regard to Coleridge by Mr. Caverno last month. In matters of Art he is an acknowledged authority, and though you constantly meet with thoughts that strike you as strange, you are stimulated to think yourself. There is a strong, healthy tone about the man, a freedom from conventionalities, an evident sincerity, and a lofty moral principle which makes you respect him, although you may not accept all his conclusions. His books are not likely to be attractive to shallow minds, but there is a smaller class to whom they must always prove a mine of richness and a fountain of delight. No public library is complete without them, and we could wish especially to see them placed within reach of our normal pupils. There is a culture given by such books that never comes from mere prosaic and formal instruction, an inspiration that is infused by the power of genius alone.

To any one inclined to make the acquaintance of Ruskin we would say send for the "Frondes Agrestes." The titles of the nine selections, namely, "Principles of Art," "Power and Office of Imagination," "The Sky," "Mountains," "Plants and Flowers," "Education," "Moralities," will give some idea of the course of thought. Whoever reads these chapters for the first time with an open heart, will ever after look on nature with different eyes.

The delightful little *brochure*—"Mornings in Florence," is bound in the same volume with the "Frondes Agrestes."

ELEMENTARY COURSE IN GEOGRAPHY. A COMPLETE COURSE IN GEOGRAPHY. By WILLIAM SWINTON, author of "Language Series," "Outlines of History," etc. New York and Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

The first noticeable peculiarity about these beautiful books, just out of the press, is that they are not related as a first and second, but each is independent of the other, and complete in itself. The smaller book is specially and admirably adapted for lower grades, and for our common ungraded schools. The other is for higher grades. After examining the first with some care, we find it to possess a good many striking and valuable features. The subject is introduced in a taking way, and hints how teachers may make the study intensely interesting. The ground is gone over, not in the dry, mechanical way so often seen in school geographies, but with an intelligent and sympathetic appreciation of the wants and capacities of younger pupils. A new, and as it strikes us, most valuable feature, is introduced in the form of sections for *reading*. These cannot help but enliven the subject and make the "geography lesson" the most attractive in school. The author has evidently well digested the saying of Huxley, (which is the motto on the title page): "Geography is the peg upon which the greatest quantity of useful and entertaining scientific information may be suspended." With teachers who can in some good degree act upon this idea, the problem of "science in common schools" is solved. We have long felt that this was the method and the only feasible method, in the mass

of our common schools, of doing any thing valuable in the way of imparting science; and we say emphatically that the teacher who can properly appreciate and supplement the author's happy efforts in this direction, will make his school room a delight instead of a prison to the children. We think this the great feature of the book, but would not overlook the thoroughly well considered treatment of the lessons for recitation. Here the hand of a master, and the skill that comes only by experience are clearly seen. On the whole, the "Elementary" comes nearer to our ideal of a model geography for common schools than any other we have seen. The illustrations, diagrams, and maps, are all excellent, the latter very clear and distinct, and not crowded with useless names. We think it a fault, however, when we find maps of the states on different scales—Maine, for instance, larger than Wisconsin, and twice as large as Minnesota. But that is a common fault.

We do not need to say much of the "Complete Course." It contains the excellencies of the smaller work, in a modified form, with other good features. Enough "oral" is introduced to enliven the subject; a due proportion between physical and political geography is presented, and the two are treated together, as they ought to be, while at the same time more prominence than usual is given to the industry and commerce of the world. The work compares most favorably in all these respects with all similar books we have seen. Another feature, the need of which has long been felt, is a "Special State Geography;" that is, additional lessons, on each individual State, to be studied only in the schools of that State. This is an important step, in the right direction. We hope the author will go further, and at some future time, and in future editions, give a good deal more of the "special" for each State, to be placed say at the end of the book, and in an edition printed expressly for each State.

These books are evidently destined to be "a success." We have been insensibly drawn into a long notice of them, and will only add that the "Elementary" contains 128 large octavo pages, and is sold at $1.20. Copies sent to teachers and school officers for examination, with a view to introduction, at 60 cents. The "Complete Course" is a quarto of 136 pages, at $2. Examination copies, as above, $1. Address, Edward Cook, 133–135 State St., Chicago.

First Book of Zoology. By Edward S. Morse, Ph. D. D. Appleton & Co. 12 mo., 188 pages.

We notice several good features in this book, as one intended for beginners and for American pupils; it does not attempt to give a dry outline of the whole science, but presents a few leading groups of the animal kingdom, and begins where young observers and collectors would naturally begin, with fresh water shells and insects; the language is plain and the treatment of subjects lively; the drawings are simple, easily imitated, and all from nature and of American specimens; ample encouragement and full directions are given for observation, for collection, and for preservation. In short, it seems an admirable little book for its purpose, and cannot but help largely to inspire the young into whose hands it falls with a love for natural science. Sample copies sent to teachers and school officers for examination, for 75 cts. Address A. S. Kissell, agent, 117–119 State St., Chicago.

The Student's Manual. By John Todd, D. D. New Revised Edition. Northampton, Mass.: Bridgman & Childs.

This is an old friend with a new face. We think the first edition appeared about forty years ago. We remember reading it, as a student, with great pleasure and profit, in 1836. Numerous editions have been printed, and hundreds of thousands of copies sold, not only in this country but in Europe, and it has been translated into other tongues. No book of the kind probably has ever done so much good. We can heartily say to each and every student, buy it, read it, and follow its wise counsels. We know of no book which is so suitable for a present to a student, especially to one gone or going from home. The last edition, as revised by the author, contains many valuable notes.

A HISTORY OF ENGLAND, for the Use of Schools. By M. E. THALHEIMER, Author of Ancient and Mediæval Histories. Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati and New York. 286 pages, 12 mo. Price $1.50.

The same vivid and attractive style, and clear and graphic narrative which has characterized the other works of Miss Thalheimer, are found in this. We have not come across a dull page. Where pupils in our common and graded schools can find time and have inclination to go further than the history of their own country, they will naturally take up that of the mother land, and no intelligent teacher can fail to interest a class with this book. Illustrations, maps, questions for review, and all needful helps are supplied. It is needless to say the mechanical execution is all that could be asked.

PATTERSON'S COMPLETE COMPOSITION BOOK. Potter, Ainsworth & Co., New York and Chicago.

Here we have, along with a blank Composition Book. a little compendium of Elementary Rhetoric; directions to pupils and suggestions to teachers; rules of punctuation, and in regard to both the form and the style of composition—the mechanical and the intellectual part; with a system of signs for marking corrections to be made; forming altogether a convenient little manual. It is put up in four different sizes, as to amount of paper, but it is most economical to get No. 4, if the book is taken care of till it is filled. The prices are 15, 20, 30, and 50 cents; for introduction, 10, 14, 20, and 35 cents at retail, at 25 Washington St., Chicago.

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GREAT BOOKS—A MODEL BOOK STORE.

Messrs. Jansen, McClurg & Co., of Chicago, who are ever foremost in supplying the wants of all in the book line, have just issued a large edition of Dr. William Smith's Bible Dictionary, a book which no Sunday school superintendent or teacher can afford to be without. This work is the standard in Bible definitions and explanations, and has been too often noticed and recommended to need an extended notice at our hands. It is mailed, prepaid, on receipt of the price, $2.50. Also, they have the book of the day, Gen. Sherman's Memoirs, with the imprint of D. Appleton & Co., New York, Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago.

By the way, no person visiting Chicago during the Exposition, or at any other time, should fail to call at Nos. 117 and 119 State street, and see this great establishment, which is conceded to be one of the finest book stores in America, the largest in the west, and probably the best arranged of any on the continent. Its proprietors, Messrs. Jansen, McClurg & Co., are practical business men. Mr. Jansen assiduously devotes his personal time and attention to the general superintendence of their immense business, and nothing escapes his watchful eye. About forty clerks are employed, each of whom has a particular branch in charge, and their work is well and faithfully attended to. Symmetry and order prevail throughout the entire establishment, and everything moves with precision and care. Their store is large and spacious, with every available shelf, corner and table filled with books, arranged in an artistic and tasteful manner. Go and see.

CORRECTION.

In the advertisement, last month, on the last page of the cover, the types made the price of the new "Elementary Geography" $1.00, when it should have been $1.20, and generously put the "Complete Course" also at $1.00, when it should have been $2.00. See a notice of these books on another page. They are deserving of careful examination.

BACK NUMBERS WANTED.

We wish to obtain the following numbers of the JOURNAL:

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FROM THE ALBANY LAW JOURNAL, JULY 10, 1875.—"The world-renowned 'Webster's Dictionary' continues to hold its place as the best general Dictionary of the English language. Of its value to the legal profession, as well as to the public, we need not speak at length. It has received the highest commendations in the courts of England, and its definitions have been universally followed in the courts of this country. As a matter of professional interest, it may be well to know that the definitions of this Dictionary have been adopted in the courts of New York in at least the following cases: *Carpenter* v. *People*, 8 Barb., 603; *Fitch* v. *Bates*, 11 id., 471; *Bishop* v. *Cook*, 13 id., 362; *Northern Railway Co.* v. *Carpenter*, 3 Abb. Pr. 259; S. C. 13 How. Pr. 222; *Steward* v. *Winters*, 4 Sandf. Ch. 587; *Elton* v. *Markham*, 20 Barb. 343; *Almshouse* v. *Art Un.*, 7 N. Y., 228; *People* v. *Payne*, 3 Den. 88; *Woodburn* v. *Mosher*, 9 Barb. 255; *Dow* v. *Whetten*, 8 Wend. 160; *Hoyt* v. *Van Alstyne*, 15 Barb. 568, and many other cases. The Law Reports of other States show a like number of recognitions of the correctness and value of the definitions found in Webster's Dictionary."

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WISCONSIN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

VOL. V. NOVEMBER, 1875. No. XI.

Education and the State System—An Institute Address.

BY EDWARD SEARING.

[The following lecture delivered by the State Superintendent before audiences of teachers and friends of education in many parts of the state, is here printed for the first time. Many requests for its publication elsewhere have been received, including one from a leading Chicago daily. Its author, however, preferred to present it in permanent form, at the proper time, to the teachers and school officers of the state through the pages of the JOURNAL:]

It is well to review, at times, the principles that underlie our faith in the commonest truths. These truths may be so common and familiar to us that we do not have for them half the appreciation they deserve. As introductory to the practical remarks I design to make, there is a propriety in a brief consideration of the *worth* of what we call *education*—both to the individual and to the state.

GROWTH DEPENDENT UPON CONDITIONS.

The individual man is born a mere bundle of latent capacities—insignificant in *actual* physical and intellectual strength—great only in the possibilities of *development*. His power is solely the result of growth; and this growth in turn is dependent upon conditions. If the conditions are favorable, what we call a true and noble manhood may result. But this growth is not wholly dependent upon *external* conditions. It is partly governed by more mysterious, innate forces—the laws of heredity. Of course, these latter are beyond our province. It is only of external conditions that the schools have any control.

This law of development, of growth—dependent upon conditions—is of universal application throughout nature's organic kingdom. It governs the development of a philosopher no more surely than the development of an oak. The laws of heredity aside, (which, by the way, are largely identical with ancestral conditions,) and we have here the reason why in a forest one oak or pine is larger or smaller than another; why one is symmetrical and another crooked; why in a herd one ox is larger, or stronger, or more beautiful than another; why in a nation one man is superior or inferior to another physically, or intellectually, or morally.

The degree to which conditions affect the individual is astonishing. A pine grown from seed in the open plain is clad in ample latitude of branches from base to summit. The forest-grown pine, in its struggle after air and sunlight, discarding a lateral growth, shoots up tall and slender, fitted by *its* conditions "to be the mast of some great admiral." The gardener knows the conditions which will give the greatest size and beauty to his strawberries or his apples. The farmer knows under what circumstances his

domestic animals attain the highest perfection of size and vigor.

No more is man independent of his conditions. Of two children whose inheritance of brain and brawn are alike, let the one be reared amid the physical and moral abominations of the filthiest and most crowded tenement-house of a great city; let the air he breathes, the food he eats, the language he hears, the men and women he knows, be vile and corrupting, and as certainly as effect must follow cause, he will become like those about him; he will probably be a curse to himself and to society. Let the other grow up amid surroundings of an opposite character. Let him breathe pure air, eat wholesome food, hear good language, know only the refining influence of virtuous and cultured example, and just as surely will life be to him a pleasure and to society a blessing.

I have spoken of this law of conditions as affecting individuals. You are, perhaps, all aware that one of the most distinguished of modern scientists carries its influence vastly further. He would make conditions the cause not only of individual differences, but of *specific* differences; and the majority of scientific men are said to be with Mr. Darwin in this. Whether we go as far as this or not, we must admit that the influence of his conditions upon the *individual* is very great. Indeed, it is so great that the result does often seem like a new creation. It is so great that we can hardly over-estimate its force.

PROPER CONDITIONS OF DEVELOPMENT.

The character of individual development depending so largely, then, on conditions, it is all important to know what are the conditions proper for the best development of a child's nature. I have already alluded to some, but will here mention *all* the leading ones; and I will name them in what may be considered the order of their proper sequence:—(1) *For the body:* Abundance of pure air; plenty of wholesome, invigorating food; sufficient regular exercise; sufficient sleep; cleanliness. (2) *For the mind:* A pattern home morality; wise home training; the refining influence of intelligent and virtuous people; the refining influence of religion, of the fine arts, painting, music, etc., the special culture and knowledge imparted by schools; the culture supplementing that from reading books, periodicals, etc.

SCHOOL CULTURE NOT SUFFICIENT.

You will observe that I have placed the culture and knowledge obtained in schools nearly at the *close* of the list. This is its proper place; for the culture of the school *ought* merely to supplement the previous and the concurrent culture obtained in the family. I am a teacher by profession, and by the accident of my official position, I represent the school interests of the state; but I do not wish, as is too often done, to unduly magnify my calling. School culture is not all the culture a child should have. When the child is a fortunate dweller in a family over which preside in triune unity, Virtue, Intelligence, and Love, his school culture should at best be the poorer part of his whole culture. That education which the schools now give to the masses of our children, and that which they probably always will give, will never be sufficient for their need, unless it supplements a virtuous home training. If all the children of vicious and brutal parents in our great cities, coming from homes which are but mockeries of the name, were to obtain in the schools such elementary instruction as five years would give them, they would not thereby be transformed into good citizens. There is no such power in the mere spelling book, the geography, and the arithmetic. To say that there is, is to utter an unnecessary and even a dangerous falsehood. To say that there is, is to say that there need be no parental responsibility—that the state can take it all. To say that there is, is to lead true educational reform astray. I fully agree with Herbert Spencer in this. Over such a class the influence of the schools as now established is good. They can to some extent counteract the degrading farce of home surroundings. They can save for virtuous lives now and then one; but a mirac-

ulous transformation of the whole class by mere primary intellectual culture they can never accomplish. The idea which I here wish to impress, is this: that the conditions under which the bundle of capacities called a "child," grows up into a vigorous and virtuous and useful manhood *are plural—are many.* Home influences are a portion. Religious influences are a portion. General society a portion

As professional educators of the young we are too *apt* to magnify our calling—to think that the mere intellectual culture and knowledge obtained in the schools are all sufficient for the child,—to remove from parents and from society a responsibility that belongs to them. The truth is, the teacher's work is merely *concurrent with the work of others.* If the work of others be in harmony, the teacher is very effective. If the teacher's work is *opposed* to the work of others, his influence is much less than is very generally supposed.

SPECIAL VALUE OF SCHOOLS.

Having thus briefly indicated the limitation of technical teaching, and shown the responsibility of parents and of society, (to which I shall refer again by and by,) let us now consider for a few moments the special value of what the schools afford—or ought to. Even with the limitation I have already indicated, their legitimate work is as vast as it is beneficent.

To the *individual* they offer *knowledge,* which our civilization renders indispensable to successful living; *and* they offer *training,* which is little less indispensable. To the state, constituted as ours is, they offer what is probably the sole guarantee of its stability and permanence.

Education is to the individual a necessary condition of successful living. It ought to give him not only power but happiness. Our very civilization is based upon knowledge and culture—the slow and precious growth of two thousand years and more. An inheritance of this is the birthright of every individual, and if society does not accord him the culture that shall enable him to possess his right, society thereby defrauds him. The long years of toil and suffering through which the race has attained its present advancement have been partially or wholly without significance to him. He lives in the 19th century, indeed, but in his dwarfed and undeveloped personality he better represents the 4th or the 10th.

THE WORLD'S ACCUMULATED KNOWLEDGE.

It is the province of the schools not only to impart the arts of reading, writing and numbering—essential to the ordinary intercourse and business of life—but they should and they do go further. They *properly* aim to open the doors to this wonderful accumulation of knowledge in which the present age is richer than all preceding ones,—which, I repeat, is the broad basis of our peculiar civilization. History, or what past men thought and did, and the principles that have governed the progress of human civilization; Geology and Astronomy, or the story of the formation of our earth, and its relation to other worlds; Geography, with its full and accurate delineation of the world's surface; Natural History, with its descriptions and classifications of the plants and animals on that surface; Natural Philosophy and Chemistry, disclosing the wonderful and omnipresent forces and laws "that pervade and animate, as it were, the universe of matter,"—these are a few of the names applied to that fund of knowledge which civilization now owns—knowledge which gives to man a power, and a dignity, and, I believe, a *happiness* he never before possessed. This knowledge is the inheritance and blessing of modern society, and society, i. e., the state, has undertaken to perpetuate it as the common and beneficent heritage of all its citizens. The value of this knowledge, both in itself and in the effort to acquire it, is, to the individual, unspeakably great. In acquiring it he lifts himself up out of blindness and comparative savagery, even as in accumulating the race has done the same thing. He becomes a joint owner of what the years have accumulated. He

is not an anachronism; he truly belongs to the 19th century in which he lives.

To have the mind furnished with this knowledge, and its faculties strengthened and sharpened by its acquisition, is to be equipped for a successful and happy life. It gives a man self-poise. It frees him from the tyranny of superstition. It makes him master of himself. It gives him, near the beginning of his career, a wisdom which he would otherwise hardly have towards its close. In brief, in a world made up as this is, of opposite and contradictory elements,—of vice and virtue, of safety and danger, of truth and falsehood—it forewarns and forearms him, enabling him to make the most of that earthly life which he has here but once to live.

THE STATE AND THE PEOPLE.

And the offer of this knowledge—this culture—the state makes not to a chosen and favored few, but to *all;* and she not only offers it, but she entreats her children to take it, for *her own* sake as well as for theirs. Here the student of history sees a new and wonderful fact. What is here the "State"? Is it I, the king? Is it we, the aristocracy? Is it we, the free? History informs us that in other times and countries the "State" has generally been a favored individual, or a favored few. It tells us that even in so-called republican Athens—in the golden age of Pericles—the state was less than one-fourth of the *people*—that more than three-fourths were slaves. In the Roman republic it was no better. The history of modern Europe is mainly a history of splendid monarchies, and of ignorant and obedient peoples. But far different is it with us. Here the people—the whole people—are the state; and when I say that the state entreats her children to accept her freely offered means of knowledge and culture, I mean that the collective wisdom and conscience of the people themselves make this entreaty. And why? Not now for *individual* good, but for the *collective* good. Where, as with us, every citizen is an equal and co-ordinate sovereign of the commonwealth, there must be general intelligence and virtue, or the system is a failure. Monarchs are carefully educated in youth for the responsibility that is to become theirs. The necessity for this it is unnecessary to discuss; the need is self-evident. So with the citizens of a republic like ours. They must be educated, for they, too, are sovereigns. They are sources of authority. They are constantly called upon to decide questions of state policy. Their votes must embody intelligent convictions, or no government could be worse than such as ours. Better an absolute despotism than an ignorant and vicious mob under the name of "republic."

DANGERS TO THE STATE.

The state, then, for her own preservation, here needs intelligent and virtuous citizens; and this need is growing, and will grow yearly more urgent. There are not a few intelligent men on both sides of the Atlantic—men heartily in sympathy with our *theory* of self government—who nevertheless look upon our national career thus far as still a mere experiment—who indeed think they already see evidences of our surely approaching failure. If we do not share their prophetic fears, we may at least be instructed by their observations.

"Our success thus far," say they, "has been due to the vast and rich areas of unoccupied territory upon which the poor and the discontented have been able to fall back, and out of which they have found the means of making a living. This territory is now to be soon entirely occupied. The best of it is already so. Our population is already showing a large element of ignorant pauperism in the older settled portions of the Union. Our great cities already have their dangerous class. The hordes of ignorant foreigners crowding to our shores cannot be assimilated. Our surprising growth in population has not been a healthy and a safe growth. Ignorance and political and social corruption have increased with our years. If before the close of the first century of our national existence these alarming evidences of decay have appeared, what reasonable prospect have we of surviving another century, long

before the close of which every acre of valuable unoccupied territory will have been appropriated, our population will have become as dense as that of the old world, and as distinctly divided into the classes of rich and poor, and our democracy have shown itself a rope of sand to curb license and preserve social order."

Fellow citizens, it is my profound conviction that these ideas deserve the consideration of every thoughtful, patriotic American. I am not an alarmist. I am inclined by nature to take cheerful, hopeful views of things; but I have read history with some care, and am not unacquainted with human nature. I believe these views are not wholly devoid of truth. I believe the question of our future, as a nation, is one not wholly free from grave anxiety. He who has carefully watched the progress of events during the last ten years, knows that the vicious elements in our political and social organization have never been relatively so strong as during this period. Since the war the power of *money* over men's minds and consciences has been greater than before. The distinction between the rich and the poor has been more pronounced. Wealth has had a more marked tendency towards aggregation. The rich have grown richer, and the very poor poorer. Temptations to dishonest acquisitions have been stronger and more frequent, and the moral sense of society in general may be said to have been somewhat dulled. Lofty ideals in politics, in business, and in social life have become fewer. Intemperance, with all its long train of crime and degradation and suffering, has perhaps steadily advanced.

Last, but not least, in a large part of what nature has made the richest and fairest portion of our territory, is to-day seen a spectacle at which intelligence, virtue and patriotism weep,—the saddest lesson of republican failure from popular ignorance that is exhibited in human annals. Other republics have failed, but none have fallen so suddenly and ignominiously as South Carolina. The failure of others was a failure to reach success, but in the struggle have been exhibited some manly qualities. The failure of Carolina has been a descent from success already reached, and in the failure without a struggle have been exhibited only the paltry adroitness of knavish greed and the imbecility of ignorant folly. And the condition of this prostrate state is but little worse than that of some of her southern sisters. Their misfortune is immediately due, and due alone, to an ignorant suffrage.

Of these general facts there can be no question. And it certainly behooves every one who loves his country to consider whither these things are tending, and what remedies can be employed to prevent the ultimate disaster to which I have alluded.

THE ONLY REMEDY.

For myself, I see but one. Yet it is a potent one, and has my fullest confidence. *We must improve the conditions under which the nation's children are growing up. We must so train them that we shall have nobler and wiser and truer men—nobler and wiser and stronger women.*

The facilities for education must be more generally diffused, must be improved in character, and public opinion must be led to everywhere prize these facilities as the chief means of individual well-being, and of national prosperity and permanence.

THE EDUCATIONAL SITUATION.

I come now to the practical question of our need, as I see it, in this state. We in Wisconsin are no worse in our educational condition than our sister states of the west, with perhaps a single exception. But that is all the comfort I can give you. We are no better, and our situation is far from satisfactory.

Let me briefly describe it, beginning at the foundation:

DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

The great majority of the children in the state attend the common district schools. The great majority of the teachers in these are young, inexperienced, untrained, and are teaching for merely temporary purposes. They are almost exclu-

sively in the summer, and largely in the winter, young girls. The school-houses are often inconvenient, ill ventilated, unsightly tenements, destitute of attraction within and without. The school grounds (No, *ground;* it can't possibly be plural) is often about one-fourth of an acre—destitute of a fence, and rarely ornamented even with a stump. In this forlorn spot, dedicated to learning, to virtue and to good citizenship, assemble the miscellaneous young sovereigns, their miscellaneous sisters, and the equally miscellaneous books. There are boys and girls and books of all ages—from three or four years to twenty. The teacher has probably never been seen before, or if she (or he) has, it is presumptive evidence of relationship to a member of the school board. There is no attempt at gradation of the school. The variety of ages and attainments would not allow this, even if the variety of text-books permitted it. Two of the pupils are probably candidates for the alphabet. Five have partially mastered the first reader. A good many are scattered along from that to the fifth. Thirteen are in geography, nine of whom have "gone through" the same books from one to seven times in as many previous terms. (The only confirmation of their statements, however, is the appearance of their books,—which by the way represent three publishing houses.) Seven propose to study English grammar, of whom four have "parsed," two have "analyzed"—one with, and the other without "diagrams," while the seventh has never studied the subject before. *Their* books are as various as their attainments. Two big boys and one big girl wish to study algebra.

Time, however, will not permit further details in this direction. Suffice it that these are the outlines of an accurate picture, photographed from nature. A wise and effective classification of the pupils is not attempted. Thirty-seven different classes are "heard," not *taught.* The recitations are parrot like. Thought is not evoked. The procrustean limits of the text-books are the same for all. If there were the ability on the part of the teacher to illustrate, to provoke reflection, to open glimpses into other new and fair fields of knowledge, to kindle a divine ambition, *there is no time for it.* The school is "kept" the usual number of months, when the pupils disperse to reassemble the next term or the next year for the same waste of time and energy and public money, and the same little gain.

This is not an overdrawn sketch of hundreds of district schools in this state. I am not sure it is much overdrawn for the *majority* of them. I assert that the entire civilized world may be searched in vain for an anomaly more surprising than this,—for a great and necessary end sought by means so empirical, so abortive, so fearfully and wonderfully inadequate. Its parallel can perhaps only be found among uncivilized races—possibly in the futile and frivolous mummeries of a "medicine man" over a sick Indian. The latter perhaps gets *some* benefit from his "family physician." And so the school boy or girl does certainly get some knowledge of reading, writing and numbering, from the *poorest* school. But who shall say what *harm* goes with the the little knowledge? Who shall say what *disgust* for knowledge in general goes with it? Who shall say what dwarfing and deadening of mental faculties come from the dull, unnatural, unintelligent routine of this kind of school life?

CONTRASTED WITH MATERIAL PROGRESS.

Consider the fact that the schools I describe, or at least many of them, are no better than they were twenty or fifty years ago,—nay, that they perhaps are not so good,—are in younger, and therefore more incompetent hands,—and then reflect that within sight of almost every school house, at harvest time, the click of the reaper is heard, as it swiftly and easily performs the work of many men,—and the scream of the locomotive is heard, as it rushes to and fro dragging the commerce of a nation. Behold the contrast! Progress everywhere but in the school room! The triumphs of civilization everywhere but in our children!

Men will make an annual pilgrimage

across the state—to see what?—to learn what?—improved methods of caring for, educating and ennobling their sons and daughters? No. Improved breeds of swine and cattle. New varieties of potatoes and squashes. Improved methods of cutting grain, raising water, plowing land. All excellent things in their way, and worthy of the pilgrimage; but are there not other things quite as needful? Can a man do anything better for himself and better for the state, than to care with his chiefest diligence for the *children* God has given to his keeping,—to surround them with such conditions as will insure them the fullest development of body and mind and soul,—to see to it, so far as in him lies, that they embody the virtues which shall make their lives both glad and good—a comfort and a pride to him, and a glory and blessing to the world?

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

I have indicated the poor character of our common district or primary schools, of which many are as bad as I have described, and few are as good as they should be.

I now indicate another defect in our system *above* these schools. There is in this state a great lack of secondary schools—schools prepared to supplement the work of the primaries by furnishing secondary or academic instruction and training. The need of these schools is in my judgment the great need of the state, and of nearly the whole country.

If there were in every populous township, or for every two or three adjoining townships, a High School, to relieve the primaries of work many of them attempt partially to perform, but which is beyond their legitimate sphere of performance, several beneficent results would ensue:

(1) A grading of the primary schools would then, with uniformity of text-books, be a result attainable. A certain standard of acquirements would transfer the older and more advanced pupils to the High School.

(2) This school would act as a stimulus to the pupils of the primary.

(3) It would furnish means for a higher culture than the primary schools give or can possibly give. A want very largely felt all over the state, in the rural districts, would be supplied by such a school. An intelligent Norwegian farmer said to me not long ago: "I am in great perplexity respecting my children. I live in the country, several miles from a village. The district school which my children have attended is, like others about me, poor. My children soon get the little elementary instruction it can give. Two or three of them are already past the age when it is of any value to them. I cannot afford to send them away to school, and I should hesitate to do so if I could. I do not want to sell my farm and move into the village. I cannot afford that. What *can* I do?" I replied: "I see but two courses for you. You must either let your children grow up without further culture, or you must instruct them at home." He said he had thought of the latter, and had partly determined to do it, but how could he find the time? It was a hard case; and yet it is like thousands of others.

(4) The presence of means for the gratification of any desire, good or bad, fosters the desire. A good High School, offering facilities for secondary instruction, and showing by its fruits the value of such instruction, would create a desire for the very thing it could supply. Let it have the qualities of excellence, and the brighter boys and girls of the town would gravitate to it as the needle to the pole. It would be truly an attractive centre of enlightenment to the entire adjacent neighborhood.

(5) It would improve the primary schools not only by removing from them the higher work they cannot and ought not to attempt to perform, and by making an efficient gradation possible, but it would furnish to them a better class of teachers—teachers of higher attainments, and broader culture, and more enthusiasm. As surely as water will not rise above its source, so surely will primary school teaching be a poor and cheap work, if the teachers acquire their preparation only in the very schools in which

they afterwards teach. It is my conviction that the state can adopt no means so effective for the general improvement of this grade of schools as a systematic effort to encourage the multiplication of secondary schools. We work at a disadvantage when we make only direct efforts to improve the former.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Some one may ask: "How about the Normal Schools? Is it not properly their exclusive and peculiar province to prepare teachers?" I answer, it *is* their *peculiar* province, and when we have perhaps fifty or one hundred Normal Schools in operation in our state it may be their exclusive province,—but not before. Four Normal Schools will hardly affect directly, to an appreciable degree, the schools of the country districts. They will directly improve to some extent those in their immediate vicinity, but not those of the state at large. The graduates of the Normal Schools, and others who have attended them any length of time, cannot be expected to sell their skill and acquirements for the wages of country teachers. They must have a better market or they will not teach at all. Hence the fact that they almost invariably gravitate to the cities of the state. Here, again, appears the need of secondary schools. These will furnish a proper sphere for the skill of Normal graduates. Here they will obtain salaries commensurate with the cost of their own training, and here they will in turn impart their culture and skill to the teachers of the country districts. When High Schools in sufficient numbers and of proper character to meet the needs of the people are established, then, and not until then, will these expensive and magnificent Normal Schools find their full justification,—then, and not until then, will they cease doing a large amount of work which it is entirely out of their true province to perform.

SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

Moreover, the state has organized means for giving superior instruction. Her University is in operation at the head of our school system. But what well-considered plan has she for filling that University with properly prepared students? What is the ladder that leads to it from the primary schools? If an ambitious and promising boy or girl in the country knows aught of that crowning feature of our system, it is only in a vague sense, as a distant, shadowy glory to which he cannot attain—which in no way concerns him, or her. To the majority of country children it is probably wholly unknown. But if its existence and province were clearly apprehended in every school district of our state, it would be, in most cases, an unattainable height to reach, because of no local means of ascent,—i. e., no local means of preparation for the University. The latter was founded for the state and is supported for the state, but nineteen-twentieths of the state are effectually debarred from any privileges therein. If a High School were accessible to the children of nearly every township, and if, perhaps, an Academy opened its doors wide and free to the children of every county—both a part of the state system—both under strict supervision—both secure against the accidents of fortune to which private schools are subject—because both a part of the *secure fortune of the state*,—then we might boast of something grander than our material resources,—then we might not blush with shame as we hear Supt. Philbrick of Boston declare, after recent personal inspection of foreign schools, that even those of Massachusetts are inferior to those of Austria! Think of it,—Massachusetts behind Austria! How then will Wisconsin compare with Prussia?

Hadn't we better cage our "bird of freedom" for a generation or two, and put into teachers and school-houses the millions we talk of spending at Philadelphia in a grand centennial show? That money would import a good many Austrian school-masters and Austrian school-houses. Or, if thought better, it would enable us to send over to Austria or Prussia whole Institutes of teachers, to find out the secrets of that success in one thing for which these old "effete" monarchies receive the unqualified praise

of such teachers as Horace Mann and John Philbrick.

One secret, however, I find mentioned in an article by Dr. McCosh, in a recent number of the new *International Review*, and I herewith present it: "A set of upper schools," says he, "reaching every district of the country, practically open to all classes, rich and poor, and under highly educated teachers, is the grand excellence of the systems of education in Prussia, Austria, and Holland, and is the crying desideratum in England, Scotland, Ireland and the United States."

VALUE OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

I cannot leave this subject without expressing my belief that it is quite as useful to society—to the state—to have a certain portion *well* educated, as to have *all* possessed of the *elements* of an education. And the larger the proportion of the well educated the better for the welfare and glory of the state. The secret of the preeminence of Massachusetts lies not in her soil, for it is poor; not in her climate, for it is severe; but in the preeminent culture of her people more than in any other cause. That commonwealth gives a higher culture to a larger proportionate number of her children, than does any other state of our Union.

It is peculiarly fitting and necessary in a Republic that education should not only be general, but it should be also as thorough as possible.

Superior intelligence and culture possessed by a certain portion (and the larger that portion the better,) are with us an indispensible guarantee of good government—of the security and progress of society. This highly intelligent and cultured portion must be interpreters, to the masses, of much the latter have neither the time nor the ability to investigate—the truths of History, of religion, of the Natural Sciences, of Political and Social Economy, etc. These, I say, are what thoroughly cultured men must investigate, not only for the general convenience and happiness, but for the very preservation of good government and social order.

To illustrate: Whence, I ask, is to come the wise solution of our currency and other financial questions, our transportation questions, the social questions of woman's suffrage, of pauperism, of crime and its punishment, of communism, etc.? Take away from the country the few thousands of highly cultured and trained leaders and interpreters of the masses, and you take away the elements of our security—you take away what centuries of human experience have given us—you take away the lights and the guides that would save the Republic from becoming a wreck or a prey upon the first hidden rock or the nearest siren shore. A despotism with popular ignorance, may last a thousand years. A Republic with universal suffrage and universal ignorance, will not last a thousand days. Add to the universal ignorance nothing but a universal primary culture, and you scarcelay delay the disaster. Add High Schools and Colleges, and all desirable things become possible and probable. Science dissipates superstition. History becomes a guide. Literature in a hundred forms of books and papers, embodies and distributes the discoveries and opinions of trained thinkers. Political Economy springs up out of human experience. Legislation ceases to be empirical, but is based upon recognized principles of social and political philosophy.

A thousand *thoroughly* cultured men, working with their brains, give encouragement and guidance to a million *less* cultured men, working chiefly with their hands,—a million less cultured, but with sufficient knowledge and training to understand and appreciate the results of the others' work. The thousand are not a class—a caste. They work *with* and *for* the million. *They are perpetually reinforced from the million.*

Here are the conditions of our stability as a Republic. Woe be to him who seeks to impair these conditions—acting in the blind folly illustrated in the old fable of the stomach and the limbs.

In this matter of the true relation of the state to higher education, I regret to observe that erroneous notions are too prevalent. I find it held by many that

the educational efforts of the state should be strictly confined to the mere elementary instruction which all its citizens receive; and that high school and collegiate or university culture should be left to individual effort. It is asserted that the many ought not to be taxed for the benefit of a few. I believe this most devoutly myself; but I also hold with equal depth of conviction that the taxation of all for the support of a thoroughly efficient State University is the taxation of all for the benefit of all, as certainly as taxation for common schools. And this is equally true in regard to high schools. Higher culture cannot be confined in its benefits to the man who receives it. It is in general a light and guide to all who are about him.

INDIVIDUAL SUCCESS.

And again, looking at this matter from the narrower stand-point of individual success, a mere knowledge of the elementary branches of learning does not fit a man here for a teacher, or lawyer, or physician, or preacher, or legislator, or editor, more than the same attainments qualify a man for the same professions in other countries. True success in them demands thorough culture; unless, indeed, nature has so superbly endowed one that by the mere force of his genius he absorbs knowledge and wisdom in unwonted ways, and appears to need no training of the schools. When our children are all Franklins and Greeleys by natural conformation, and our potatoes and corn yield a hundred fold without culture, then we may turn our school houses into doctor's and editor's offices, and our plows into corn shellers—but not before.

My friends, it is time we ceased importing into this state teachers, and ministers, and lawyers, and doctors, etc., for we ought to have *manufactured* by this time as good an article in one of these lines as we can get. Look at the chairs in your State University—filled with foreigners—with Massachusetts men, New York men, Vermont men. Look at the chair at the head of it, recently filled by another Bay State scholar and author Look at your leading pulpits—nearly all occupied by eastern men. How much longer shall this thing be? How much longer shall we decry the bookish culture of the academy and college, and yet every time we want a first-class man for some important and practical position in our commonwealth, go, hat in hand, to Massachusetts to make obsieance and entreaty to some large browed and clear eyed man there, sitting within or under the shadow of college walls? How much longer shall we be in finding out the truth that Wisconsin can grow her own brains—equal in *quality* to those of Massachusetts, and needing only the proper *conditions of development* to meet all our requirements of professional and political life?

I think we shall wake up by and by to a sense of both our ability and our need. Perhaps the nation will wake up by and by, after a few more such humiliating spectacles as it witnessed less than two years ago even in the halls of the highest branch of the national legislature, where a German scholar—a mere "theorist,"—a "book man,"—a "visionary,"—made the ablest speech on the very practical question of finance ever delivered in the American congress; while some distinguished and really representative American statesmen delivered about the same time the foolishest. The Americans were not a whit behind the German in point of natural ability. *Training* had made the latter superior. No finer illustration of the value of German schools can be found in our country to-day than this incomparable German (I am sorry to say ex-) senator, who stood matchless and alone, after the fall of his peer, the equally splendid representative of Massachusetts scholarship and training.

But, ladies and gentlemen, I have already detained you too long. I will add but few words. Let us see to it that our children have those conditions of true and symmetrical and full development which the interest we have in them and the interest the state has in them demand.

TO PARENTS

I would say: Your responsibility in this direction is paramount to all others. Give your children the best culture you can, both at home and in the schools. Give them a generous culture. Let not one, if possible, fall short of academic training. Do not send them away to obtain it, if that can be helped. Keep them as long as possible under home influence. If the local schools do not afford proper facilities, move to obtain them. Every village or township of even five hundred inhabitants is large enough to support a high school which shall offer all needed advantages. It should be able to prepare students for the freshman class in any department of the State University, or in any college,—or to fit them well for the business of life. If in such village or township these advantages are not offered, it will hereafter be the nearly inexcusable fault of the people themselves. What if to secure them costs twice or thrice as much as now? Will it not pay? How could the money be invested better? Indeed, as a mere pecuniary investment it will pay. A first-class school in a place enhances the value of real estate and other property in the vicinity. It invites to the place men "who seek homes where they can educate their children without being parted from them."

But the burden of cost for these higher privileges in behalf of which I plead, is now wisely and liberally shared by the state. I commend to your consideration the high school law of last winter by which I trust that eventually better and more advanced instruction will be rendered accessible to nearly all the children of the state. I would urge upon your children the fullest use of the facilities already existing, and upon yourselves a constant and intelligent effort to secure for them the wiser and fuller culture that lies within the grasp of proper effort. I repeat, that *your first and paramount duty* to them and to the state is to secure for them *the conditions of development*, whereby they shall come to *a vigorous, symmetrical and useful manhood and womanhood.*

TO TEACHERS

I would say: Ours is a noble calling. I hold that it outranks every other. I am proud to belong to it, and to greet you as co-workers. The fact that you are here seeking instruction proves that you belong to the better class of teachers of the state—that you mean to be intelligent and progressive. I hope that while you are teachers you will always be students. Nothing contributes more to success in teaching than to have the spirit of a learner. It keeps one interested in his work. It prevents evil effects from the routine work we do. It gives added power. The great Dr. Arnold, of Rugby, was asked why he, who had taught so many years, continued to study so much. "Because," he replied, "I would rather have my pupils drink from a running brook than from a stagnant pond." This was one great secret of Dr. Arnold's remarkable power as a teacher.

Study not only what you teach, but give *some* time to systematic study of *something else*—whatever most interests you—botany or zoology or some other natural science, or English literature, or a foreign language. Study whatever you take, regularly, systematically. An hour, or even half an hour a day, will amount to much in the course of a year. This will add to your happiness, as well as to your wisdom. The little side work I have myself thus done has been invaluable to me, and I commend this to you with the fullest confidence.

Let me say one thing more. Show in yourselves always that character, that virtue, which you would wish to impose upon others. After all, character is better than everything else. Remember *this* in your teaching. Give lessons by *example* (and, as you may think judicious, by precept)—in honesty, in charity, in kind-heartedness, in sympathy for brute life, in respect for those in legitimate authority, and in love towards God and man. There was a Great Teacher who taught all this, and taught it passing well. It is the very essence of true education. The schools, and alas, parents, too often

neglect it. It cannot, must not be neglected in this country, of all countries. Make this the foundation, and build upon *it* the strong superstructure of intellectual training, and your full duty is wisely and faithfully performed.

Language—The Teacher's Main Instrument—I.

[An Essay delivered before Teachers of Buffalo County, at an Institute held in Alma, September 1, 1875, by G. HARPER.]

Sir Charles Bell, the celebrated physiologist, speaks with admiration of the wonderful mechanism of the human hand, finding in its exquisite form and varied movements, and fine sensitiveness, the promise and prophecy of all that rare skill and ingenuity which we witness in the manifold works and inventions that have issued from the fertile brain of man. But there is a still more wonderful instrument—that of human speech or language, without which, notwithstanding all his other boasted endowments, man would still be but little higher than the brutes. The mind might labor and teem with thoughts and ideas; but without the God-given power of expression, or communication, the grandest conceptions of the intellect would be stifled in their inception, and die still-born. Without language there could be no unity of action among men, no society, no government, no education, no religion. The power of communicating our ideas to each other by means of articulate speech, which is capable of endless improvement, is usually said to distinguish us from the lower animals. These dumb creatures are not impressed or acted upon as we are, by their surroundings; they can have little or no conception of the beauty and order which reigns in the world around them; and so the power or susceptibility of *impression* and the power or capacity of *expression*, we find to be convertible terms. The highest types of our race—our Homers, Shakspeares, Miltons, Gœthes, are such only by virtue of their wider and deeper sympathies with the soul and spirit of nature and humanity, and consequent superior range and power of expression. Language thus becomes the true measure of mental stature or capacity; for what we understand and know thoroughly, we have no difficulty in clothing in fitting terms; while what is unknown to us, or what we merely have floating around in the brain in a crude, chaotic or vague condition, we can of course have no means of putting into fitting words. Moreover, as we advance in knowledge and gain clearer and broader conceptions of things, our vocabulary becomes enlarged and our language is correspondingly improved. In order, therefore, to a due cultivation of the mind, we must never omit a careful and attentive study of language, which is the foundation of all correct speaking, as well as of accurate composition, no matter what the subject may be.

Every person of intelligence and fair education, naturally desires to know something of the origin and history of his native language. And it is a gratifying fact that, more especially of late years, the elements at least of the English Language and Literature has been taught in many of our high schools, academies and colleges; and not only this, but considerably more attention has been paid to the subject likewise in many of our district schools. In this manner, most of those who have enjoyed fair opportunities of instruction, know something at least of the history of their mother tongue and its relation to the other languages of the earth; and this knowledge of itself implies no small degree of culture of a rudimentary kind, at least. For *language culture* lies at the foundation of all other culture; and without due attention to it, no man can ever hope to excel in or even to gain a competent knowledge of, any branch of science, art or literature. Between words and ideas there is a most intimate and subtle relation: words not unfrequently rule and govern our conceptions of things, often warp and mislead the judgment; and hence the profound remark of a distinguished philosopher who had closely investigated the operations of the human mind, and surveyed it in its

strength, that "words are the counters of wise men but the money of fools." This observation of the prince of modern philosophy, Lord Bacon, contains a great deal of matter for profitable reflection. Let us for a little consider its import and meaning.

The great mass of mankind, called by the Greeks somewhat contemptuously, *hoi polloi*, or, the many are for the most part ruled by *words*, which are the mere symbols of ideas; and most people are content to accept on the authority of others whatever conclusions are set before them without much scrutiny or criticism, whether these conclusions relate to matters of politics, religion, education, or any other subject. Thus, for want of due thought and reflection, they become the easy prey of the political demagogue, the religious fanatic, the medical quack; and even, to come somewhat nearer home, this tendency to mistake counters or bogus money for genuine greenbacks, is sometimes as conspicuous in affairs of *education* as anywhere else. We know there is sometimes *quackery* to be met with among educators as among other professionals. For example, high-sounding pretentions and showy titles are sometimes given to special subjects, such as the topical method, oral training, object teaching, intellectual arithmetic, and so forth; when it turns out, after all this blowing of horns and great expectations raised, that the objects of such high training are not always found to be so very much ahead of their immediate progenitors in acuteness of observation, or in readiness or variety of mental resources.

Such reflections, at any rate, show the great importance of attending closely to the precise meaning of language, so as to gain clear, full and accurate conceptions of the things represented. It may suit a Jesuitical character like Tallyrand to regard language as the "means of concealing thought," or mystification; but all honest and true men will ever apply it to its appropriate use as a medium of social communication; and the zealous educator will regard it as a subject of the very highest importance, to be used in its genuineness and purity, as an instrument for developing the mind and promoting civilization.

A very cursory acquaintance with human history and affairs will convince us of the utter groundlessness of the many quarrels which have raged in the world, and which still prevail around us at the present day, even among the wise and learned, on account of the diverse notions which parties have attached to the meaning of words. In scientific pursuits progress has often been retarded for want merely of clear and precise definitions; and apparently opposite philosophical systems, as spiritualism and materialism, are found to differ chiefly in the notions attached to the principal terms made use of. In the domains of religion, to what grievous troubles has a want of attention to the meaning and scope of phrases and words not given rise? Here, indeed, the evil spirit of mental misconception and misunderstanding has held high carnival; here we have always had a fruitful source of disagreement and unprofitable discussion, owing to the jugglery which may be practiced with words of doubtful meaning. Too true it is that, mainly because the parties concerned misunderstand each others phraseology, bloody battles have raged and wars been carried on. Calvin procures the burning of Servetus because he cannot get him to see a point of doctrine exactly in the same light as he himself sees it; in other words, because they attached different meanings to the same terms. Had the world regarded the questions at issue calmly and dispassionately; had the parties in these bitter and endless controversies known more of the "philosophy of language," most of these insane quarrels would never have existed. Even in our own comparatively enlightened age, with Richard Grant White and Swinton and many other experts in language within easy call, we find these principles of dissension largely entering into and obscuring every public question that can arise, in politics, science, philosophy or religion; and it is only by a better system of early

training in language that we can learn to avoid the evils here spoken of.

The differences existing among parties of all kinds, thus owe their existence chiefly to the same causes; mainly to the confusion of ideas arising from erroneous conceptions of the meaning and signification of words. From the history of past ages we find that the world at large learns its lessons upon this subject very slowly, although it pays a high price for its education. The same questions are constantly re appearing, and generally suffer the same fate in every age. It is a long time before people learn patiently to agree to differ until more light can be had. Seeing a question from different stand-points, it is impossible that they should agree until they have been trained in youth to mark the different aspects which truth must necessarily present to those of different degrees of culture, different habits of thinking, and different character from themselves. And here we are reminded of the well known story of the two Knights in the age of chivalry who, as the story goes, were approaching each other, and ascending an elevation on which a beautiful statue had been erected. After saluting each other one of them exclaimed: "What a beautiful *red* statue we have here!" "Red," said the other, "you are entirely mistaken, my friend, it is a rich *blue* color." "You lie, quickly retorted the first speaker; and from such words of course the fiery champions soon came to hard blows, in a short time mortally wounding each other. They were now near the top of the eminence lying panting in their death struggles, when one of them raising his dying eyes to the statue now in full view, was astonished to find that the artist had painted it *blue* on one side and *red* on the other, and that both were thus perfectly right in their statements. He pointed out the fact to the other as he lay expiring beside him, and sighing said: "What silly fools we were thus to hack and hew each other to death about a matter of so little real importance, and which could have been easily settled by a somewhat closer observation!" But as I have said, the world, like all heavy bodies, moves slowly; it is long before people in general can learn the value of such lessons: and here a slight misconception and misunderstanding of words and terms are but too apt to set them by the ears and often lead to the most serious consequences. This tendency of our nature, which an enlightened training in youth alone can help to remove, was not unobserved by the ancient sage who was thus led to make the pious reflection that "while among mortals there are many tongues, among the immortals there is but one." In heaven there will thus be no chance of such misunderstandings: words will no longer be used to conceal thought; not only will there be but one language and one speech, but what is still more, every heart and every tongue will be attuned to a state of the most perfect agreement and harmony, as to the precise import and significance of that celessial language throughout its whole bright vocabulary.

But if to the general reader a knowledge of his own tongue is a matter of considerable interest, it is surely much more so to the school teacher whose main instrument it is in the education and training of youth. It is, so to speak, the food with which the instructor of youth works; and every artist, every mechanic and tradesman worthy of the name ought to be thoroughly acquainted with the implements of his particular craft. The carpenter, for example, desires to possess a good chest of tools; and if he is particularly fond of his trade, he loves to expatiate on the merits of each tool, and to keep it sharp and serviceable. The painter, the blacksmith, the machinist, and all others who follow a handicraft for which they have an especial liking, feel pleasure in constantly adding to their knowledge of their calling and furnishing themselves with the best and most improved tools; and the good old farmer himself, who at one time was supposed to be little removed in intelligence above the dumb beasts that surrounded him or helped him in his daily labor, even he, clodhopper as he was wont to be called

in former days, is now found to be as wide awake as any of his neighbors, and a diligent student of soils and breeds of stock and fancy potatoes, and ambitious to know and to understand the merits of the different agricultural implements in the market. In short, all aim at as thorough a knowledge and mastery as may be within their reach, of the business which they have espoused. And shall the teacher form any exception to this almost universal rule of a desire for excellence? Will he be content to lay behind all the rest, and care nothing about "new improvements" in his own line of work? For him will Horace Mann and David Page and a host of others have lived and written in vain. Does he care nothing about the mystic but powerful instrument of speech which forms his main weapon in his attacks upon the strongholds of youthful ignorance, waywardness and sloth? Will he rest contented with the mere mechanical ability to parse and analyze a sentence according to certain dismal rules, the principles upon which these rules depend being utterly unknown to him? Will he not rather feel a worthy pride and ambition to penetrate to the hidden source of words and their signification, so that when occasion demands it, he may be able fully to illustrate to his pupils the meaning of the lesson, especially when the words are uncommon or the thoughts obscure.

It is incumbent on the teacher, therefore, if he would seek his pupil's highest improvement, as well as his own, to study language, as it is embodied in English Literature; and he can best do this by beginning at the fountain head and discovering the sources of his mother tongue, which, from the number of excellent works of recent date devoted to the subject, is comparatively an easy task. And this, I believe, is the most profitable mode of studying any subject,—namely, by seeking first of all, to know something of its history and progress. If you want, for instance, to know something of geology, astronomy, or any science or subject, you cannot, I think, do better than commence at the beginning and see how it gradually arose and developed itself into its present proportions. You can thus, after awhile, be able to survey the whole field, instead of only a small corner, at a glance, and understand by what successive discoveries it has been brought to its present state of perfection. Like the history of the world, the history of science, as of language or any other subject, is the history of the great men who have been the chief cultivators of the several departments; and to learn what they did or thought is to know the most of it. So with the history of the English tongue, which from rude beginnings has, by the labors of successive authors, each striving to improve and perfect its form, become the noblest and most polished language in the world.

As it is the nature of man to indulge in speculative enquiries on all subjects, the origin of human language has also been keenly discussed, some ascribing to it a divine others a human or natural origin. But even here the question is more about words than anything else. Human language is a gift derived directly and immediately from God, say some, whilst others assert that it is a natural growth. But in fact the two views are very easily reconciled; for whether the Almighty gave language to man, or simply endowed him with faculties by means of which language may be acquired, practically it amounts to the same thing. And I should like to know what single gift there is that is not God-bestowed—which did not come down from heaven? It is too much the custom now-a-days to seek to deify man and to banish the Almighty Ruler of the Universe from the world which he has made and still governs as he did from the beginning. It is true that language is a growth, a development (an *evolution*, if you like it better,) gradually improving and unfolding itself like the branches and leaves of a tree, just as the nation or individual using it advances in science and knowledge. New words and forms of speech arise just as they are required by the necessities of a people or of an individual; but whilst all this is very natu-

ral, and only proves the "reign of law" in language as everywhere else, He that at first breathed into man the breath of life must have likewise endowed him with the power of adapting his language to his requirements. He it was that must have planted the seed which was thereafter to spring up and grow into a mighty tree, like our own majestic language, with its wide, ever-spreading branches and numerous ramifying roots. At present there are several hundred different languages or dialects in the world; and it is important to notice that the character of the people can best be studied in its language. In ancient times the Greek and Latin, like the superior races that used them as their vernacular, excelled all others, and were fitting exponents of the respective nations that spoke them—the Greek distinguished for grace, melody and copiousness, and the Latin for native vigor and nervous strength of expression. Both of these ancient languages were so perfect in form that we still, after many hundreds of years, continue to study and to admire them as models of style; and as they are likewise component parts of our own composite speech, it is probable that they will long continue to be diligently studied in the future as they have been in the past, at least by those ambitious of learning and scholarship.

Except by Shakspeare alone, who may be called "the poet of the world," the blind old man of Scio's rocky isle, (as Homer is sometimes called) is still unapproached as a poet; and the splendid orations of Demosthenese and Cicero, the most perfect specimens of forensic eloquence are still studied and imitated by the most distinguished orators and lawyers of all civilized countries. We thus find that great, original and noble thoughts and sentiments, in whatever language contained, are imperishable. One of the well known Roman poets, on concluding his works, with the confidence inspired by true genius, says, "I have raised a monument more enduring than brass" (that being the metal in which statues of the great were then made,) and we know that it was a true prophecy, for the works of Horace, which have carried the Roman name farther than her eagles ever flew, are now, at this distant period of time, to be found as a classic in all countries where genius is admired or learning cultivated. A poor, hard-working peasant boy of Scotland, possessed a heaven-born genius for song, cultivated his gifts, and soon became the prince of poetic writers of his nation. While he lived he was always poor and had to struggle hard for a living. It is true the great and titled patronized him a little, just enough to injure him by getting him into bad habits; it is true divines and philosophers condescended to shed upon him whom they considered far their inferior, the light of their countenances, more as an act of charity, perhaps, than for any other reason. But after two or three generations have passed away, what do find now? The tables, we find, are completely turned; for whilst all these aristocratic patrons of the poet are completely forgotten, or only remembered in connection with him, the proud name of Robert Burns ranks among the foremost in the world for genius and worth, and his fame is every day spreading wider and wider Nor will the genuine wit and humor of his Tam O'Shanter, nor his heart-felt grief for the untimely loss of his "Sweet Highland Mary," ever be diminished by the lapse of time or the progress of society. For it is a fact well worth noting in this connection, that while science and knowledge are extending their empire and advancing their landmarks, the great throbbing heart of humanity remains ever the same in all ages and among all peoples; and hence the memory and works of the great poet are ever the last to pass into oblivion..

It is the boast of Great Britain that so vast are her domains and so widely scattered over the world, that the evening drum never ceases to beat any time during the twenty-four hours, in some part or other of her extensive empire, but its incessant roll is kept up night and day, all the while round the globe, as the earth

moves in its circling orbit, from month to month and year to year. This proves the great extent of England's domains, as well as the grandeur of her power as a nation; but the deathless thoughts of her poets and great men penetrate farther yet than her victorious arms could ever win their way, and their worth and genius is acknowledged and reverenced by those who would scorn her military rule. One may take up a child's spelling-book or reader where only very ordinary words are to be found; but had he the genius to combine these simple words in such a manner as to produce a new and thrilling melody, which would captivate all hearts, or could he so arrange them as to express a great and new truth in science and philosophy, the world would willingly wait to listen; so true it is that "the pen is mightier than the sword," and enjoys a wider, a deeper and a more abiding sway over mankind; for

"Words are things, and a small drop of ink,
Falling like dew upon a thought, produces
That which makes thousands, perhaps millions, think."

Defects of the County Superintendency—The Elective System a Failure.

BY A TEACHER.

Witnessing the effects of partisan influence in the selection of superintendents of schools, in many counties of the state —the indifferent material from which the omnipotent forces of politics evolve incumbents of this important office, and one can scarcely wonder at the disrepute into which the system has fallen among the more intelligent of certain afflicted localities, or at the persistent efforts annually made in our state legislature to repeal the law and return to the more defective town supervisory system. It is clear to me, however, that the abuses complained of do not lie against the system of county supervision, but against the manner of filling the office of county superintendent by popular election, under the manipulations of corrupt and scheming politicians. It is notorious that in but few instances is the office filled by men of the highest culture and character which the county affords. Indeed, ability and fitness seem to have little to do with the selection. A pet of the dominant party—and to be a party pet a man must be an active politician—is generally put in nomination because, perhaps, he has some available political influence, either of a personal or local nature that, it is thought, will add strength to the "ticket." The elements of this influence are often qualities the very reverse of those which should be sought for in a candidate for that important office.

As the fall election approaches, and the schemes of the political wire-pullers begin to unfold, the worst features of this elective system become apparent. We may look upon the low tricks and shifts of the professional office-seeker in the pursuit of other county offices with apparent unconcern, but when a man in quest of the position of county superintendent of schools, an office so intimately connected with the intellectual and moral welfare of the rising generation, resorts to low and degrading practices to win favors from his ruff-skuff constituents, we cannot look on with indifference. But, after all, what else can we expect? In morals, as in physics, it is true that "the stream cannot rise above its source." The created cannot be greater nor better than the creator. So long as the people create county superintendents, they will make them after their own kind. A low public sentiment will call out representatives of kindred sentiment. But the head of the educational work of the county, in order to exercise an elevating influence, must, in ability and character be above the average of the county. Such a man will not, to secure the office, descend to the level of the ignorant and vicious, and hob-nob with them, because, perhaps, the inscrutable dispensation of republicanism has endowed them with the right of suffrage, and put into their hands thereby the balance of political power in the county. Unless we can secure persons of good character to look after our educational interests, any system of supervision will prove a failure; but while the office of county superintendent is one to

be played for on the political checker-board, we can have no assurance of securing the services of such men; rather will it continue to be filled with "the "the chance creations of political parties."

In how many counties in Wisconsin is the balance of political power in the hands of the ignorant and intemperate class of voters? I shrink from stating what I believe to be true, that in one-third of the counties of the state, the candidate who has the saloons and their votaries on his side, is sure of success. The bearing of this fact, if such it be, upon county superintendents and schools, is fearful to contemplate. There is scarcely such a thing in our times and country as "an office seeking a man." On the contrary, the motto of politicians is, if an office is not worth seeking for it is not worth having. When a man enters the arena of politics, which he must do if he desires office, he must enter as a politician, and be prepared to do as politicians do—get votes when, where, and by what means he can. With those electors who go for merit and fitness he has no work to do, but with that class whose votes are subject to "influence," and who are "down on" those "stuck up" chaps who won't associate with and do as the rowdies do. Here, then, is his field of labor. If he desires the office he must work for it; and he must work where it will be most effective, among that class who will always vote for the man who treats liberally, and is in all respects one of the "b'hoys." If we could look into the saloons of the state about these days, we should find many a county superintendent, in common with other office-seekers, stooping to the lowest acts of the lowest politician, paving the way to re-election; bartering temperance, self-respect and every virtue that a superintendent should possess, for cheap votes. What an example this before the pupils and teachers of the public schools! How futile all good theories to counteract such disgraceful and pernicious example. A man elevated to the office under such influences cannot but degrade instead of elevate the schools under his charge. I am credibly informed that the superintendent of a certain county in this state (and I wish it was the only one,) has, by the estimates of competent judges, spent more time the past summer in saloons than in the schools, all for the purpose of "setting up the pins" for re-election this fall. Of course he neglected his legitimate duties; but, with an accurate knowledge of his constituents, he knew full well that he could, by so doing, win more votes from the ignorant, rowdy class, than he would lose from intelligent and respectable voters. It was simply, with him, a matter of business forecast. Under such a condition of things our schools cannot prosper.

The drift of public opinion, I believe, is toward some appointive system, whereby the office will be removed, as far as possible, from the degrading influence of politics. I am glad to notice that the plan of appointment is recommended in the resolutions of teachers' meetings in several localities. But where shall the appointive power be placed? I do not see that giving it to district officers, as has been suggested, would greatly mend the matter. These minor offices are now usually given to those who will accept them and discharge their gratuitous duties; and since those most interested in the schools are the most likely to accept, the chances are in favor of the best men of the district being selected. But put into their hands the power to elect county superintendents, and even these petty offices will be thrown under political influences, to the detriment of the local administration—now bad enough—at the same time subjecting their acts as electors to nearly all the evils now complained of. It is impossible, however, to remove the appointing power entirely beyond the influence of politics, for somewhere it must hinge upon an elective office; but the farther it can be removed the better. My opinion has always been that the state superintendent is the proper person to appoint local supervisors of schools. To secure harmony and efficiency in the supervisory system, the county superintendents should be regarded as

the local administrators of the state department. I know there are prejudices against delegating this power to a central official, not only because the people think they know best what they want, but because it would remove a party lever in local elections. A reasonable compromise with this feeling might be effected by giving county boards power of affirming or rejecting appointments made by the state superintendent. The law should prescribe some standard of qualification, at least as high as the highest certificate that the county superintendent is authorized to issue, and while a preference should be given to a citizen of the county, the question of competency should override all others; so that if a suitable person be not found in the county, one may be imported.

Under this system the salary should not be left to the short-sighted parsimony of county boards, for this would defeat the whole plan, but should be fixed and paid by the state.

THE FUNCTION OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

BY PREST. OLIVER AREY.

Paper read before the State Teachers' Association, July 29, 1875.

In 1836, or about that time, the first institution foreshadowing the functions of the Normal Schools, was opened at Andover, Mass., under the name of Teachers' Seminary. It existed only eight or ten years, but during this short period of its existence, it graduated a number of successful teachers, some of whom are still actively engaged in their chosen work.

In 1839, July 3d, the first Normal School in the United States was opened at Lexington, Mass., since which time they have been organized in almost all the states in the Union. These schools were originated by a few noble men in Massachusetts. They originated, however, only the idea that teachers should be especially prepared for their work, by institutions whose only object should be the performance of this important trust. But the specific plan on which these institutions were to be administered, was not put forth by any one. No work had been laid before the public comprehending the necessary principles, nor had any leading thinker, apparently, in mind the corner stones of thought on which the superstructure of these schools should be reared. Only this thought was apparent—that teachers should be taught how to teach, while a plan from no quarter could be discovered which should determine the details or general functions of these institutions. Facts in their growth substantiate these statements. Facts in the history of these schools, also, substantiate that the central thought on which they are to be developed, is now well understood by those who have them in charge.

It is true that each school has its individuality in the details of its function, but the main principles are the same in all; and the end to be compassed by them differs in no essential particular. Nor were the projectors of these schools unwise in launching them amidst the conflict of thought, with no clearly defined chart by means of which they could advance in their work without mishap or failure. All institutions, all products of the industries come into existence and reach their maturity in this graded and continuous manner. In all work of the intellect the epochs of growth are distinctly impressed, and as distinctly impressed is the poverty of the original conception. Neither are the Normal Schools in their growth and usefulness, behind the growth and usefulness of other institutions. Law, medicine and theology, are no exceptions. Hoary centuries look down on these learned professions, while thirty years are scarcely left behind in the formative work of the Normal Schools. Moreover, the Normal Schools have struggled alone in their efforts to reach the clear, open ground of their work. Within their own range of thought in the United States have the principles been evoked which have shaped their endeavors, and determined their results. No scholars or body of men from without have originated an ideal which has furthered their progress. The universi-

ties, those great centers of light, have failed to recognize the necessity of the professional training of the teacher. No grand thought from them has ever illuminated the pathway of the Normal Schools, while they have showered a world of light on law, medicine and theology. They have seemed to act upon the idea that a teacher, like a poet, *nascitur non fit*—that he who possesses an aptitude for imparting knowledge can teach well —that he who has not, can teach ill; that special education for teachers is of no avail. Only a short time since our own university declined to accept a professorship, whose object should be the preparing of teachers for their work. Another university, at the east, gave as a reason why it could not establish a chair of pedagogy, that it was too much occupied with other interests. Another still declined altogether the question.

Now, are the universities justified in taking this ground on the vital subject of how the youth of the nation are to be instructed? Is it of no moment to their work how the youth who are to enter their doors are taught? Will not their ends be furthered when the function of the Normal School is more completely defined? Is it making too great a demand of the universities when it is only asked of them to assist in the great work of investigating and classifying the principles of teaching? That somewhere, within their range of thought a chair of the philosophy of education shall be established, that the instructor may be prepared for the discharge of his duties, and the students who wait on his labors be properly instructed? When the universities give the Normal Schools this aid, both will be substantially improved—the former because intellectually stronger students will be found in their halls; the latter because better means will be at hand to aid in accomplishing their work.

But this problem of the function of the Normal Schools has not been the easiest one to solve; progress, however, has been made in its solution since their organization as great as has been made in the solution of any intellectual question, when it is remembered that less than a generation has passed since these schools were established. And it may be now stated that the function of these institutions is not to create an original capacity. They have not discovered the methods by which something can be made out of nothing. It is not in their province or in their power to inspire in the supremely selfish that generosity of character which acknowledges the rights of others, nor in the lazy that activity of intellect which the work of instruction demands. It is not the work of these schools, because it is not in their power to make thorough instructors of those individuals who would enter the profession of teaching because it is considered, by some, an easy way of supporting life, or a respectable mode of existence.

The man who cannot manage his farm, the woman who cannot care for her household, the individual who wishes to make the teacher's office a stepping-stone to something he supposes higher, and those whose moral character render them unfit to adorn and exemplify the teacher's life, can in no way aid the Normal Schools in their work of training the leaders of the American youth, and therefor cannot be recognized by them. They are not to form a procrustean bed, a mould in which all individuality is to be crushed, and from which the same product must always be had, a process that fits teachers to train up only the same glib-tongued parrots as themselves.

It is not within the range of these schools to recognize those whose bias of mind leads them into other fields of labor, nor any class of persons who cannot be made to acknowledge the responsibilities of the teacher's life, nor show an ability to discharge them. But it is within the function of these schools to prescribe and pursue a course of study to prepare the teacher for his work. To do this, the prescribed course must compass the discipline of his mind, impart to it a knowledge of all necessary facts and principles, and mature its judgment in all matters relating to his work, whether

immediate or remote. This ground will embrace the whole field of the teacher's academic instruction; and justly, because Normal Schools first examine thought in its relation to other thought, and second in the use the teacher is to make of it, thus securing to the student a ready and philosophical mode of imparting it to those he may instruct.

It is a peculiar function of the Normal School to create in the candidate for the teacher's office a love for his work, since it is so rare that any one entering on the profession of teaching has given this consideration the importance it demands, or has prepared the grounds for its successful development. No man does a work well which he does not love. No person endures the adverse fortune of his profession bravely, or makes that progress in it which he should, unless he nurtures for that profession a deep and an abiding susceptibility. No one thoroughly respects his vocation unless he sinks it deep into his heart, and holds it there a shrine before which he daily worships. Besides, it is the chief cord which binds the successful teacher to his work. Break this cord to-day in the hearts of our devoted teachers, and they will be turned from their chosen fields of labor to the other walks of life. Then shall not the institution which moulds the instructor implant within him that love which, like the mariner's compass shall ever point him to the polar star of his profession? He will then realize the enthusiasm of the college student on the day of his graduation, when he exclaimed: "Why, it is worth a whole existence to live four years in college"—so deeply had the susceptibilities formed and taken hold of him. The susceptibilities which should be formed in the Normal Schools are no less enduring than those formed in the college or other institution, while they are potential in securing those purposes for which these schools exist.

It is an important trust of these institutions to search out and recognize that well-balanced individuality which shall make sure the educational work accomplished. This individuality should be intelligent, progressive, and yet conservative, embracing integrity of character, scrupulous regard for the rights of the young, with courage and persistence to overcome difficulties; with a spirit that can rejoice in the prosperity of others, and with a devotion that cheerfully accepts the hardships that well-directed work must bring upon him, never acknowledging his duties performed until his work is done. Such a character is not discriminated solely by written examinations. Not unfrequently when this ordeal fails to reveal the status of the candidate, other methods will discover the teacher's character hidden beneath parental or other neglect. A delicate enquiry into the student's early habits, a careful watching of unconscious influence, modes of expressions, manner of accomplishing his purposes, with a brief trial in the class-room, will often reveal an individuality which has been waiting some observing eye to detect its worth and appoint it to its proper work. This watchful discrimination of character, the Normal Schools cannot ignore.

But above all, these institutions are to examine the grand methods, facts and principles of educational work. This work lies especially within their domain, and it brings to the minds of those who have them in charge a command to not only familiarize themselves with what is already known on these points, but it urges a duty to observe, to study, to investigate constantly, to the end of the better understanding of the laws of thought, and their application to the best methods of instruction. While work has been done here by Normal School men and women, the future is full of problems to be solved in this department, and the best energies of all who are in our universities, our colleges, our normal schools, high schools, common schools, and the offices of supervision, are required to aid in the solution. No one has searched out the secrets of nature, or her relations to man. No one has yet fathomed the possibilities of the mind. It is still to a great extent an unknown agency. The silent and secret manner by which it im-

presses others, and by which it is itself impressed, and the absolute mystery of its environment, command all to earnestly and reverently, explore its sacred domains, and discover the facts and principles of its existence, that those who teach may be able to instruct those who enquire and those who do not, how to accomplish the purpose of life, which is of more value than life itself.

That such progress has been effected, and has been recognized, is seen in the constant call which is made by school boards, for teachers who have had Normal School training. In one case, when our supply of Normal School teachers was exhausted, a college graduate was recommended, one of the first in his class, but the reply came back that not a college graduate was desired, but one who had had professional training.

This is professional work,—a work that harmonizes all knowledge in the mind of the pupils, so that it applies readily to his daily life and to his future progress. This is the special work of the Normal Schools, and they must see that progress is made here.

A further consideration which lies within the province of Normal Schools is the creating of adequate ideas of their work, the guarding of the growth of these institutions, and of conserving their relations to other schools. It is well enough understood that to teach means to lead—to go before, and make plain the work of those who need this aid. Just to the extent that the institutions in which the teacher is educated hold their true relation to other institutions,—to the extent that their ideals are what they should be, and their growth consistent,—to that extent will the instructor who goes out of these schools hold his place among his fellow-men as their trusted leader. Now, whose welfare does it concern so much that proper ideas are originated, that growth is consistent, and the relations of these schools rightly adjusted, as those who have those institutions in charge? Who should be more earnest and active in making their foundation broader and deeper? Who should give more time or thought to make sure that Normal Schools comprehend the necessary facts and principles, to secure, not only to their graduates, but to all who seek instruction in them, that advanced, elevated and substantial culture which shall open to them a consideration among the educated men of their time.

The final consideration which I shall briefly discuss, is the relation of Normal Schools to other institutions:

It is asserted by good men, whose opinion is worthy of attention, that the Normal Schools should take their place side by side with the University,—that their work should deal only with methods and principles, and that only graduates of colleges, or men whose academic education has been completed, should be received in them as students. This theory of their relation has received much discussion, but has not, in the United States, found any practical expression. If graduates of colleges were found in the district school or the people's colleges, then would this relation of the Normal Schools be the true one; but since college graduates do not to any extent work in the rural districts, therefore the Normal Schools, which were designed to assist the teachers in these districts, can do them no good by preparing professional teachers who do not work in them. The question seems to me to turn on this point—shall the Normal Schools prepare teachers for the district schools or for graded and other higher institutions. If for the district school, then their relation to other institutions is correctly defined now. If for higher schools, their work should be university work. If they are to prepare teachers both for the district and higher schools, then the state needs to add to its present system of Normal Schools a Normal College, whose work shall be the providing for the wants of those who may take charge of the interests of these higher institutions.

Other considerations invite discussion —whether thought works from the masses upward to the educated, or from the educated downward to the masses,—how most effectually to conserve the integrity

of the mind—what shall be the order of studies, and the Kindergarten interests. A thorough discussion of these points would aid in the solution of the present problem, but the limits of this paper rule them out.

SPELLING.

The perfect spelling of a language implies that each written character in its alphabet stand for only one sound, and that each single spoken sound be represented by one character, and only one; and further, since all men and all tongues are related, that all language should use the same characters, and use each of them for the same sound; and, again, that sounds which resemble each other should have written representatives which resemble each other, and that the characters should be so shaped as to naturally suggest some notable circumstance about the position of the organs of speech in making the sound.

The spelling of the English language answers to none of these conditions, but is bad in every imaginable way. The same character may stand for many sounds: *a* stands for four sounds, as in *father*, *all*, *table*, *tap*. The same sound may be represented by many different characters, or a sound may have no character of its own; *a* in *fate*, is represented by eight combinations; *e* in *mete*, by eleven; *i* in *fit*, by ten, and so on. Our alphabet is deficient, it is redundant, it is inconsistent, it is unsteady, and it is out of correspondence, more or less, with all the other languages of the world, so that we have to learn our letters over again when we study German, or French, or any other language. The characters have no relation to the form or movements of the organs of speech, and no relations of proportion with each other and similar sounds.

No language has a perfect alphabet. All languages gradually change. The regular process of change is the weakening, and drooping, and assimilating of other letters. The letters of unaccented syllables, especially, are carelessly pronounced, and finally drop out; *Carolina* tends all the time to *Carulina*, and that to *Carlina*, and *Cullina*, and *Culliny*. When the unaccented letters fall out, that often brings together letters that are hard to pronounce together, and then one of these softens or drops. In this way the spoken language is all the time running away from the written one. In most languages, however, the written words rapidly follow the changes of the spoken. As soon as scholars and teachers all stop sounding a letter in any word, they stop writing it. The changes go on slowly, one word at a time, and the written and spoken form do not often grow far apart.

But in the English language unusual changes of great extent took place very rapidly. The mixture of French and Anglo-Saxons who make up the English race, united a large number of their words to form the English language, and many of the words of each nation were hard for the other nation to pronounce. They were spelt by the scholars to whom they were native in the old book fashion, but the people did not pronounce them correctly. Many letters were left silent, or inserted to no purpose in an ill-directed attempt to represent the strange combinations. Then a great change took place in the whole *gamut*, so to speak, of our sounds. The vowel system shifted. The long, close vowels, *i*, *u*, lifted into dipthongs, and became *ai*, *au*; *wine*, which had been pronounced like *win*, is now pronounced *wain*; *hus* is now pronounced *haus*, and written *house*. The long mixed vowels, *e* and *o*, at the same time changed to their final weak element; *e*, for example, had been sounded like *e* in *they*, but now shifted to *e* in *the*.

People hardly knew what was the matter, as these changes went on, and before our scholars waked up, the whole system of writing was so far away from a proper phonetic one, that people ceased to feel any necessity for keeping sounds and signs together, and the scholars gave up.

The trouble, then, is mainly with the silent letters and the long vowels. The extent to which the silent letters deform our writing, and use up our time and money to no purpose, is something won-

derful, and would be incredible if it were not plain fact. Computations have been often made like the following from the New York *Tribune*. Mr. T. C. Leland counts the letters of an article of 74 lines, and finds there 337 silent letters. These would make 10 lines, or 14 per cent. of the article. There are 72 columns of the *Tribune*. Nearly 10 of them are lost. Mr. Leland goes on to compute that these columns, if occupied with advertisements at the medium price, would bring in $300,000 a year, or $3,000,000 in ten years, to the *Tribune* alone. Now, there are many newspapers and periodicals, and thousands of books to multiply by to give the total loss by silent letters. There is another point of view which shows us still more important losses; the time lost in learning to spell is very great. It is estimated that about three years is spent in learning to spell in our youngest schools. The time spent in giving the corresponding skill in spelling German in the Prussian schools shows that from 12 to 18 months is all that is needed. Now Mr. Leland says, there are 220,000 teachers in the United States, and he supposes there are 100,000 of them engaged in teaching the children of these three first years. At $300 a year that would be $30,000,000 a year, and half of it thrown away. But the money is nothing compared with the evil done to teacher and pupil. The loss of time to both is woeful. It is the most painful drudgery to both. The time is stolen from other studies. Then it is bad in its influence on the intellect of the beginner. The child should have its reason awakened by order, reasonableness, good sense, in the objects which it is made to study. But woe to the unfortunate who attempts to use reason in spelling. Every attempt to think how words ought to be spelt leads wrong. It is a mark of a promising child not to learn to spell easily. One whose reason is active must learn not to use it. The whole process is stupefying and perverting. These enormous evils have led to many attempts at cure in the schools, of which the most successful is that of Dr. Leigh. According to that the silent letters are printed in skeleton type, and pupils leave them out in spelling. This system is used in St. Louis as an introduction to the common spelling, and is said to save half the time of learning to read. Any teacher may use its method to a considerable extent by printing the words of the spelling classes on the blackboard after the manner described.

As to the irregularities of the vowel system it may be noticed, by what has been said, that the long vowels make most of the difficulty. It is they that have changed, and taken up complicated and unreasonable relations. It would be an advance if we were to call the vowels by their short names. The short sounds are pretty uniform, and like those of other nations, and if the characters were named from them the names would be right in a great majority of cases. The sound of the letter *i*, for example, in *bit*, occurs 590 times in every ten thousand sounds we utter, while that of *i* in *bite* occurs only 191 times. If children were taught that the name of *i* is *i* (as in *bit*), instead of *ai*, as they are now taught to call it, it would come right in spelling three times as often as it does now, and prepare the way for a ready acceptance of a phonetic representation of the long sound.

We ought, however, to have a reform of our spelling. Attempts have been made at reform from the earliest times. The long procession of reformers, if we begin with Orm and come down to Ellis, includes many illustrious men. Franklin and Noah Webster are well known here. Many attempts have been ill-advised and would have made matters worse. What looks like a reform from some one point of view may be bad on the whole. The science of Comparative Philology, one of the latest and greatest of the modern sciences, is based on the study of sounds and their representatives in languages. Within the last thirty years some of the best heads in the world have been occupied mainly with these subjects, and we now know pretty well what we want.

There have been congresses of the

scholars of the world to fix on a universal alphabet, and many able books have been written about it. The most eminent of our modern phonologists, Mr. A. J. Ellis, has been many years at work on the history of the sounds of the English language, and there has lately been a great awakening of interest in the matter, both on its theoretical and practical side. It has been repeatedly brought before the English Philological Society, and a certain liberty of spelling is allowed to the members of that Society in the papers which are published in its transactions. The American Philological Association has this year appointed a committee of the best scholars of the country to examine and report on the subject. The school board of St. Louis have directed the use of Dr. Leigh's system in their schools, and common school books are printed in his type. The legislature of the conservative old state of Connecticut has just passed a bill, with a unanimous vote in the Senate, to appoint a commission to examine and report on a reformed spelling for the public documents of the state and the text-books of its public schools. There is no difference of opinion among the students of modern philology as to the desirableness of reform.

Some of the literary amateurs of the last generations railed at such reforms, and the opinion has become current in many quarters that philologists want the old spelling preserved, to preserve the etymology of the words; but a changeless orthography destroys the material for etymological study, and written records are valuable to the philologist just in proportion as they are accurate records of speech as spoken from year to year. The only matter of doubt is whether anything can be done. These are days of easy communication, and of many great Associations. Perhaps it may be found easier than we expect to attain combined action. This great body of teachers might do much by speaking out for reform. It might induce our legislature to take action like that of Connecticut. By and by we may overcome popular inertia and prejudice, and introduce the reform in all our schools; and then the battle will be won.—Prof. F. A. MARSH. *La Fayette College, Pa.*

Text-Books — Different Editions — Uniformity — Prices, Etc.

I wish to give the readers of your valuable journal my ideas of this text-book matter which is claiming the attention of the book *buying* public, perhaps more than the book *using* public. The latter class claims me for an advocate, and who can dispute a right that has been earned by an experience of 27 terms' teaching in some of the schools of our country?

I will mention, first, the annoyances that text-books give me. I have found this trouble in every term of every school I have taught too widely prevalent, namely, different editions of the same author's work upon the same subject. All who have taught will readily understand, and those who have studied at school will be painfully reminded, that experiences harmonize him, and sympathy is common. We have not complained of the price of the book, but we have been greatly annoyed by the "variations." The teacher has asked his class to turn to a certain piece or example, according to the book he holds; part of the class find it as designated; part say it is not in the book; part say it is in the book, but not upon the same page; part say that part of the piece or example has been revised. And the teacher finds no little confusion. So here may be a reform that can be easily reached. School boards should instruct to buy of some one edition. If a later edition is found to be much better, then let a whole class, when promoted, buy of the new kind. In this way will a gradual uniformity be brought about with no inconvenience. In the same way as just mentioned may the same book by a new author, be substituted; this plan will not incur additional expense, and in many cases may be a great saving, as advantage may be taken of introductory rates, or exchange made.

The next in order is uniformity of text books throughout the state. We see but one advantage in such a system, and this

is that the books could be furnished cheaper. So could reapers, organs, sewing machines, etc., if one manufacturing company had the monopoly of the trade; but some farmer might not wish the same kind of a mower or reaper that his neighbor or more remote stranger has; the housewife might be dissatisfied with the sewing machine that her sister has; and the cultivated ear for music in one person may create a love for Mason & Hamlin, while another might wish Pelonbit & Pelton's. But we must make all use just such text books throughout the whole state as is recommended by a board of school book examiners or commissioners—for what purpose? to save money. What is money to liberty? A healthy competition is maintained in consequence of the present system. It is true the book publishers have combined and have promised how high they shall sell? Oh no; but to keep poor establishments from giving away their books in order to get them introduced. Some school districts would introduce a new book, if very cheap, as they hire a cheap teacher. We believe booksellers to be as good a class of men as are engaged in any vocation. Most of them have been teachers, and are acquainted with the wants of the school attending public. If we have a uniformity in the district, what more does that school want? It is a little government in itself, and all should be in harmony with one grand system—the school system of the state. Every school should be in truth a tributary of the State University, and then farther than this to surmount all a National University at the seat of government in the nation. If all were taught from the same text books, all would have views too nearly alike. We gain strength through interchange of ideas brought about by different modes of instruction, by viewing things from more than one standpoint; in short, in the use of a variety of text books. We see but one serious fault in the present system, that poor people, being blessed with the largest families, move oftener, which occasions the purchasing of new books. To obviate this the district may provide the books to any or all at a small rental in a district library and upon the same principle; or they might deposit the price of the books drawn and upon returning them the money could be refunded, retaining a part for injury or ordinary wear, etc.—*A. H. Porter, in Palmyra Enterprise.*

A MODEL RECITATION.—A model recitation is one in which the pupil rises promptly when called upon, stands erect, begins the recitation at the beginning, proceeds according to a given plan, and closes when the conclusion is systematically reached. This for the pupil. It is for the teacher to assign the lesson so definitely that pupils may know just what is required of them, to call upon them rapidly, and to make his questions as few in number and as short as may be, only indicating what is to be the topic of recitation, without giving any clew whatever to the answer. The model teacher makes his pupils do most of the talking during recitations. He but seldom interrupts a pupil while reciting, his questions and suggestions usually coming at the close of the recitation. The plan suggested does not imply that a recitation is to be made in stereotyped phrases, or by the repetition of meaningless forms; but it does imply that it shall be conducted according to a logical plan, so that the pupil may know where to begin, how to proceed, and, above all, know when he has reached a conclusion. True, this course will take time in the beginning, but in the end it will save a hundred fold. Try it.—*Indiana School Journal.*

THE teacher should cherish for his pupils a sentiment of profound respect, for the moral sublimity of the child is often greater than that of the man. A spirit at once child-like, patient, watchful, vigorous and devout, is the great desideratum and the great want of our teachers.

WITH the fire of most men's flowing enthusiasm may be seen the smoke of self-conceit.

THE silent lip of faithful service is better than the rattling tongue of audacious eloquence.

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

Q. Our district, lying in three towns, was formed more than three years ago, but by the order of the supervisors of only two towns. Is it a legal district? Can the order be appealed from?

A. It was not legally formed, but an existence of two years has cured the defect. (Sec. 6.) An appeal would not be sustained on the ground mentioned, if the district "has exercised the franchises and privileges of a district for two years."

Q. The boundaries of our districts are uncertain, and no sufficient records of their formation can be found. What shall be done—must we form and organize the districts all over new?

A. This is hardly necessary: Let the town board meet, notifying all the district boards, and pass a general order, such as will obtain if possible, general endorsement, defining and determining the boundaries of the districts, and the town clerk making a new map. This will probably settle the matter.

Q. Can a district, by a vote, donate back to the treasurer money stolen from him?

A. A district has no authority by law to do this; and if generously disposed, the better way would be to make up the loss by private contributions.

DISTRICT MEETINGS — ADJOURNMENT—CHAIRMAN.

Q. Our annual meeting assembled, and adjourned for want of numbers; then met and adjourned a second time for the same reason. At the third meeting four voters were present, and without any report from the board proceeded to transact business. Was it not illegal to do so?

A. It was not illegal. Whether it was wise depends on circumstances. If there was no reason to expect a fuller meeting, those present not only had power to proceed, but were justified in so doing. It was desirable, of course, to know the exact financial condition of the district, but it was not the fault of these present that they had to act in the dark. A special meeting is the remedy, if dissatisfaction exists with what was done.

Q. We adjourned our annual meeting two weeks; met and adjourned again three weeks, making five weeks from annual meeting. Was it legal to transact business at this meeting without the notice provided for in section 20?

A. The notice was not necessary, as the interval from the first adjournment to the second was less than "four weeks."

Q. Is it proper or legal to appoint a person chairman who does not belong in the district?

A. To do so seems a reflection upon the district, and is, of course, not contemplated by the law. It does not follow, however, that the action of a meeting under such a chairman should be set aside as illegal, if the action was not determined by illegal votes.

Q. Can the chairman of a district meeting vote, make motions and deliver speeches?

A. He has a right to vote on all questions, if a voter. If he has a motion to make he can get some one to offer it for him; or he can call some one to the chair while he offers it himself—also, if he wishes to make a speech.

DISTRICT ELECTIONS — PLURALITY — BALLOTING—ALIENS.

Q. A few voters met early at annual meeting, and as near as we can ascertain elected a clerk before 7 o'clock. Was it right for the electors, on assembling, to set aside the election and proceed to another?

A. If it actually took place before 7, it was null and void; and even if it had just reached 7, some allowance should be made for variation of time-pieces, and the election of officers should not be pressed through as the first business. The meeting, under these circumstances, would be justified in rescinding the first election and in going into another.

Q. On p. 420, Jour. of Ed., 1871, it is said a majority elect, but afterwards I think it was said that a plurality is sufficient. Which is correct?

A. The first statement was incautious and is incorrect. It has been repeatedly stated since that a plurality elects.

Q. Can there be more than one balloting for district officers, or will the same rules of law control as at town or other elections?

A. The laws as to town and general elections have no reference to district elections. The school law does not even require election by ballot, though that is best. The district has the general power "to choose" its officers, and there is no good reason why it may not reverse a first choice and make a different one, if at the time there appears to be occasion for doing it, though it cannot be done at an adjourned meeting, when a person has accepted and so acquired a right to the office.

Q. We elected an alien as district clerk at our annual meeting. Some time afterwards he took out papers. Can he hold the office under the decision quoted last month in the JOURNAL?

If he took out his papers within ten days he can hold it, but he could not qualify himself and claim the office after the ten days had expired.

TERMS OF OFFICE.

Q. Must the succession of terms provided for in section 31 be absolutely followed, and if a clerk is chosen for three years at first meeting, instead of one, and it goes on so, can it afterwards be changed?

A. The law is peremptory. The continuance of its violation for some time does not preclude the duty or propriety of setting matters right, when the error is discovered.

DISTRICT OFFICERS.

Q. Has the clerk alone power to hire a boy to made fires?

A. The power belongs to the board. It is usually unwise, and might be regarded by the other members as discourteous, for one member to act in such things alone; but having done so, in good faith, and having done what was needed and without unreasonable expenditure, it may not be worth while for the others to repudiate such action.

Q. Can an outgoing treasurer insist on a settlement with the board before delivering up funds and papers to his successor?

A. The law (section 88) makes it his duty to thus settle, and it is obviously proper that it take place before the transfer is made.

Q. If a person elected treasurer is allowed to act as such without giving bonds, who is liable for loss of funds at his hands?

A. This is not easy to determine; but the board, whose duty it would be to appoint another person, if the one elected failed to file a bond as required, would be culpable for countenancing illegality.

Q. Suppose a director neglect to prosecute a treasurer for breach of conditions of his bond, as required by section 34, what is to be done?

A. The director is liable to penalty for such neglect. (Sec. 184.)

Q. We elected a treasurer who neglected to file a bond in ten days. A treasurer was appointed afterwards by the town clerk, who presented a sufficient bond, which the director refused to sign, and the person elected, who has entered upon the office, refuses to give up funds, books and papers. What is the remedy?

A. As you state the case, the person appointed is entitled to the office, and his remedy, if the other party will not give up, is by a *quo warranto*. On the facts stated, the court would probably put him in possession of the office. But no such proceeding ought to be necessary.

DISTRICT BOARD.

Q. If a district votes that it will have no school, can the board then levy a tax and provide for one?

A. Such a vote is a nullity, and does not release the board from its duty, nor from the penalty, if the duty is neglected.

Q. The district voted, without opposition, to borrow $400 to build. The clerk and treasurer signed the necessary papers sent from the land commissioners, but the director refused to sign. What is the remedy?

A. *Mandamus*, or removal by the county judge, and the appointment of a

director who will sign, if he has no good reason for refusal.

FREE HIGH SCHOOLS.

Q. If a district votes to establish a high school, under the law of last winter, and a tax to support it, can it at another meeting rescind these votes?

A. It must be held to have this power, under section 19, School Code (sub-section *Fourteenth*). The new law does not provide that a district shall not retract incipient steps in this matter, therefore it retains its general power to do so.

TAXES.

Q. If a man is illegally set into another district, is he to pay taxes in that district?

A. If there is an *order* on file, setting him into another district, he is to pay taxes there afterwards, if the order is not appealed from, shown to be illegal, and set aside.

TEACHER—CONTRACT.

Q. Can I close school a week to attend Institute, without consent of the board, and draw my wages?

A. No, you must have consent of the board. They have power to grant it, under section 43, School Law, p. 156, School Code. If you close the school without their consent you lose your time, and they might say you ought to allow for damages to the district. It is not well to close school at any time without consulting some of the board.

Q. Is a teacher's contract lawful if drawn up and passed around to the board to sign, without any meeting?

A. This is not the proper way to do business; but if all the board signed the contract, the courts would probably hold that they had estopped themselves from taking advantage of their own loose way of doing the business.

Q. If two districts are consolidated for the purpose of building one good school house and having a graded school, does that break up contracts already made for schools in the old school house?

A. I should say not. Even an act of the Legislature cannot impair the obligation of a contract, much less should the order of a town board. If it is desirable to vacate a contract made, the teacher must be satisfied first.

SCHOOL PRIVILEGES.

Q. If children in going to their school have to pass another school house, are they not entitled to the privileges of the nearer school?

A. Equity would incline to say yes; but to make it legal, they must be set into the other district. Under the town system such anomalies would disappear. Children would be permitted to go where it would be most convenient for them to go.

RE-EXAMINATION.

Q. If a teacher is examined in the spring, and obtains a year's certificate, is she *obliged* to attend the fall Institute and be re-examined, or can she engage a school for a year, in the spring?

A. A certificate given for a year is good for a year, unless sooner annulled. It would be right and lawful to enter into contract, for one year, on such a certificate, so far as the certificate is concerned. There is no law obliging a teacher to attend an Institute and to be re-examined at that time. It is always well to attend Institutes, however, if possible. What the superintendent has a right by law to require, is, "a re-examination of any teacher in his county for the purpose of ascertaining his qualifications to continue as such teacher." (See Sec. 105.) Under this section the county superintendent would not be authorized to require all the teachers in the county to meet in one place for such re-examination. When, however, a superintendent proposes such a general re-examination in the several inspection districts, it is to be presumed he does it for the general good, and well disposed teachers will try and comply with his request.

CO. SUPT'S AS TEACHERS—WORK BY PROXY.

Q. If a county superintendent wishes to teach, how can he become a qualified teacher?

A. He cannot "qualify" himself; a certificate from another superintendent would be good only in that county. The solution of the difficulty is found only in the possession of a state certificate.

and this is one of many reasons why one of the requisites to eligibility to the office should be the possession of such a certificate. It might be reasonable for the law to make a certificate from a neighboring county superintendent valid. In 1871 the legislature authorized the superintendents of Polk, Burnett, Douglas, Bayfield and Ashland counties to issue certificates to each other, on proper examination. In counties with small population, paying a small salary, it is usually the case that the superintendent engages in some other business part of the time, and teaching is most congruous with his office.

Q. Can a county superintendent while teaching, or otherwise engaged, have some part of his work done by proxy?

A. I am reluctant to give an affirmative answer to this question. In conducting examinations, and in some other things, certain clerical work can be performed without objection by an assistant, if one is needed. But to devolve official duties which require the exercise of judgment upon another person is a different thing. A county superintendent is elected to perform his own duties. If it is found impracticable to attend to them, the more honorable course is to resign. The office is not now held in high esteem, in some quarters, and every delinquency or irregularity on the part of its incumbents adds to its insecurity.

HOLDING OVER.

Q. If a county superintendent holds over because his successor does not qualify, does he hold over for the term?

A. No; it must be held that he is to continue for one year, and that another election, the ensuing November, will designate the will of the people again.

WOMEN AS COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

Q. Has there been any decision declaring the law which makes women eligible to the office of county superintendent unconstitutional?

A. There has been no decision in our courts. As no one has been elected, of course the question has not been brought into court. (Answered Oct. 20.)

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

SELF CULTURE.

Without intellectual self activity there can be no culture obtained even in the best schools. Schools afford leisure (the etymology of "school"), and they afford certain stimulating conditions, favorable to self activity, but they afford nothing more. This activity and the resulting modification of one's being, or culture, can exist away from schools. This truth is forcibly illustrated by such men as Elihu Burritt, Hugh Miller, Horace Greeley, Robert Collyer, etc.

Not only is this fact largely overlooked in the midst of an ever present and complex school machinery, but we probably ascribe too much importance to this machinery among the factors of human development and culture. It is well, therefore, to be frequently reminded that it is simply proper activity that gives development, and that activity can go on under circumstances much less favorable than those afforded by schools.

With incitements to mental activity abundantly and cheaply provided in books who, in these days, need *necessarily* be uncultured? Not by any means those whom poverty keeps from high schools or colleges. This truth we wish just now particularly to impress upon young teachers,—and also those who are not so young.

A cultivated intelligence is absolutely essential to success in teaching. The more brightness, wit, judgment, information, a teacher possesses, the better teacher is he. These qualities win the respect and admiration of pupils. They create an atmosphere peculiarly adapted to the growth of like qualities in the young. Who does not see verification of this in his own experience as a pupil, as he looks back over his school days and recalls the various instructors of his youth?

How can this cultivation be carried on —this desirable culture be obtained—outside of academic walls? Simply by a strong desire to secure it, and by the ac-

companying exercise of a sufficient amount of will power to keep up the proper intellectual activity. Books must be carefully read and studied. The faculties of the mind must be exercised in obtaining and in judging the knowledge stored up in these repositories of human experience.

Suppose, for example, a young person wishes to obtain a good knowledge of general history. We believe he can get it by diligent reading of a few books at home. He need not remain ignorant of the history of his race because he has not the means of pursuing the study within the walls of a school. There are admirable books and cheap books from which he can quietly and inexpensively obtain this knowledge—one of the most important within the range of human acquisition.

Or does he wish a valuable acquaintance with the rich field of English literature? Two or three dollars will bring to him a master—ever ready at his will henceforth—who can tell him of every leading writer in the language, his character, his influence, the time at which he lived, and the books he wrote,—can even give him goodly fragments of his work to show its strength and quality. From this instructor, who asks no tuition and whom it costs absolutely nothing to keep, he can learn what authors and what books are most profitable to read, if he desires to form special acquaintances in this rich and noble field.

Is it the marvels of a particular science that he would know? Here in the cheapness of the books is a marvel scarcely surpassed by those accurately and luminously described within their pages. The most famous teachers will, for a few shillings, hasten to instruct him in his own home, giving him lessons at his convenience, patiently, and with all the repetition that misconception may demand.

So in many other departments of learning. The example of Burritt clearly shows that even in linguistic studies the aid of schools and teachers is not essential. From the book beside his forge he obtained the foundations of those attainments which have made his name familiar in both hemispheres.

Young men and women, who seek to be good teachers, and yet whom poverty ruthlessly debars from the advantages of high schools and colleges, be not discouraged. You are not too poor to command the means whereby you can break the barriers of ignorance, and walk the earth in the glad freedom of knowledge and culture. It is not that you so much need the money you do not have and the schools you cannot attend, as that you need the strong desire and the invincible will to use the conditions of intellectual growth within your control. With the proper disposition to mental activity and the proper ambition, the book read by the light of a pine knot may give the intellectual fibre which without these qualities cannot be imparted by the best schools.

We hope in our next issue to give a brief list of the books most useful for the purposes of home and self culture in at least the departments of history and English literature.

A GOOD NEWSPAPER.

Not only can a young teacher find culture in the solitary reading and study of books, but there is another source of great intellectual benefit accessible to him in the columns of a first-class newspaper. Of one such paper every teacher should be an habitual and careful reader. By means of it he will be able to keep abreast of the world's progress—to know the political and social changes that are taking place in his own and other countries, the leading men who are the molders or exponents of public opinion, the progress of geographical and scientific discovery, the successful achievements in Literature, Art, Mechanics, etc.

While for his own sake the teacher cannot afford to be without the companionship of an excellent newspaper, he also cannot afford to be without it on account of his school. It is a repository of abundant illustration which he may use to the interest and profit of almost every class he teaches.

So strong is our faith in the value to a teacher of what we are now speaking, that were we asked to mark out a course of reading for a young teacher, we would invariably head the list with a newspaper. No books can take its place. Its information and its influence are unique. It is a large factor in our modern civilization which no intelligent person can wisely ignore.

But of newspapers there is an infinite multitude. What one shall the teacher select? It will be observed that we have referred only to "a first-class newspaper." We have had in mind only *the great metropolitan papers*—those of the nation's chief commercial, literary and artistic centre, New York. Excellent papers are of course published elsewhere, but for our special purpose we think they cannot here be considered. It is inevitable that certain broader, nobler and more cosmopolitan characteristics should be found in the papers of that city than in others.

What shall be our choice among the several great metropolitan papers? We have no hesitation in saying that, *for the special purpose we have in view*, the *New York Evening Post* stands out with singular excellence and value—combining independence of all party, an admirable truth-loving spirit, high literary character, great variety and accuracy of *valuable* news, and specially full information respecting literary, artistic and musical interests. No paper in the country surpasses it—perhaps none equals it—in the purity and general excellence of its English. Its literary criticisms have always been a peculiar feature.

We therefore recommend to teachers, above all the newspapers with which we are acquainted, this one which was an inspiration to us when we taught our first school a quarter of a century ago, and from which we have drawn strength and refreshment nearly ever since.

So deeply impressed have we been with the value to young people of a really noble paper like this, amid the ocean of weak and worthless periodical literature in which they are engulfed, that we have frequently given this advice to teachers assembled in the Institutes we have visited. For the purpose of commending it to a larger audience, in a more specific and practical form, we expressly solicited from the publishers the advertisement contained in this number of the JOURNAL. To this, in conclusion, we call attention, believing that in no other way can we do more to promote the educational interests of the state than by showing to its multitude of young teachers the best means of that self-improvement which in strengthening and ennobling them shall thereby most surely benefit the children under their instruction.

SCHOOL BOOKS.

A reference in our last issue to what we called a couple of "heresies," advocated by the *Palmyra Enterprise*, viz: State Uniformity of Text Books, and Abolition of the County Superintendency, brings a reply from that paper in which we find the following paragraphs:

> Is the *Journal* ignorant of the fact that there is a universal complaint throughout the State, (and reasonably too) on account of the high price of school books as an unnecessary burden to the people? And that the patrons of schools are now paying double the price that should be paid for books? Is the *Journal* aware that the frequent changes in text books in schools is another just cause of complaint, and that the fact we have no uniformity established is yearly causing a great waste of money expended for school books to be laid upon the shelf, and that high prices and frequent changes have for many years been causes of complaint? Has the *Journal* ever suggested any remedy for this injustice and unnecessary inconvenience? We have never seen anything of the kind. Now we propose a remedy against high prices for books, and their frequent changes in our public schools.
>
> "Notwithstanding the continued complaints as to the high prices by the patrons of schools nothing has as yet been done to remedy the great injustice, nor will there be unless the people take action in the matter. We simply state here that we propose the adoption of a State uniformity as a means of economy, and a remedy for the great waste of money expended in this way."

It being clearly apparent from the above that the editor of the *Enterprise* was in a condition of blissful unconsciousness, respecting the educational events in this state during the past year and more, we made all haste to send him evidence that the "Text-book Question." had received a little consideration from us during this time.

The simple fact is, that not only has the JOURNAL during the past two years repeatedly published editorials and selec

tions, expressing our views on this important subject, but the last annual report of the Superintendent contained what we venture to believe to be the fullest discussion and presentation of this subject ever given in an American school report.

In truth, we had given so much attention and labor to the matter, had so often expressed our views, and had supposed our position so well known to the teachers and school officers of the state, that after the publication and distribution of the annual report last spring, we thought we had done our full duty in the premises, and determined to observe for a time a discreet silence, lest we should be accused of making a "hobby" of our plan for the relief of the people and the schools from the evils attending the present methods of obtaining school books.

The *Enterprise* says: "Notwithstanding the continued complaints as to high prices by the patrons of the schools, nothing has as yet been done to remedy the great injustice, nor will there be unless the people take action in the matter."

Quite likely. In fact we rather think so. That's just what we are waiting for. Who *should* take rction—who *can* take action—if not *the people?* Theirs is the grievance. In their hands lies the easy redress. If they do not "take action" when so simple and easy a remedy is pointed out to them, and given also the sanction of law, as well as the approval of the great body of the teachers and superintendents of the state, then may not the editor of the *Enterprise* conclude with us that, after all, the "injustice" and the "burden" and the "evil" are more in our own imagination than with the dear "people" in whose behalf we so loudly and feelingly, and withal so uselessly, preach reform?

However, we are not ourselves yet quite discouraged. Free text books are already to be found in some districts and towns of the state and are giving great satisfaction. They will yet prevail. The saving of nearly one-half the original cost, the removal of the last exception to the absolute freedom of the schools, the economical use of books by successive classes, the less frequent changes when school boards have the responsibility of purchasing and caring for public property, instead of merely dictating what others shall purchase and care for, the absolute uniformity secured to the extent that is really essential—in districts and townships.—and the full and prompt equipment of the schools with books at the beginning of the term,—these (and other) great and manifest advantages will yet make free text books everywhere the adjunct of free schools. In this belief we were supported by the formal approval of the state convention of local superintendents last winter, we are supported by the most intelligent teachers of the state, by some of the ablest and most experienced superintendents of public instruction in the eastern states, by educational writers there, including the editor of the educational department of the *Atlantic Monthly*, by successful trial there, and, most of all, by the plain teachings of Political Economy.

LADIES FOR COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

Under the law of last winter, making women eligible to school offices, there have been quite a number of nominations of ladies for county superintendents of schools, the following being the nominees and the parties by whom nominated, so far as we have observed:

Clark County—Miss Mattie Burt, Republican.
Columbia—Miss Katie Lowth, Reform.
Eau Claire—Miss Agnes Hosford, Republican; Mrs. Elizabeth Mayhew, Reform.
Marquette—Miss Julia A. Kelsey, Republican.
Oconto—Miss Maggie Comstock, Republican.
Outagamie—Miss C. M. Bailey, Republican.
Pierce—Mrs. Lizzie Woodworth, Republican.
Portage—Miss Laura V. Alban, Reform.
Walworth—Miss Etta S. Carle, Reform.
Waupaca—Miss Sarah Marsh, Reform.

These candidates are generally spoken of as ladies of fine education, well qualified by practical experience as teachers and otherwise, accomplished, estimable, etc., but as is the case when men are nominated, it is alleged some were nominated chiefly because it was thought they would bring a large support to the ticket, rather than because they were deemed just the ones for the place for which they were named.—*State Journal.*

THE SCHOOLS OF MILWAUKEE.

We recently had the pleasure of visiting for the first time some of the public and private schools of our metropolis. Although spending two days and a half in the city, and making a somewhat diligent use of the time, we nevertheless came away with the feeling that we had scarcely begun an inspection of its educational facilities. Devoting only one day to each, we found that an entire month would not enable us to examine all the schools. What an imperfect idea of the whole, then, must necessarily be that formed in a visit of less than three days?

A prominent object being the examination of the Kindergartens of the city, the time devoted to the public schools was so brief that but three or four besides the High School were visited. These included the "Hadley," the "Plankinton," and the "Humboldt" Schools.

Besides the three German Kindergartens, some time was given to two of the principal German Academies—Professor Hailman's and Professor Mueller's.

In addition to these, visits were made to the "Milwaukee Female College," and to the "Milwaukee Academy."

While we necessarily saw only fragments of the whole, these fragments, nevertheless, led us to the conviction that Milwaukee is building up rapidly and intelligently an educational system worthy of her position, not only as the chief city of the state, but one of the largest, most prosperous and beautiful cities of the nation. The intelligent foresight, unwearying energy, and the refreshing enthusiasm of Superintendent MacAlister, supported by the Milwaukee School Board, are accomplishing most beneficent results.

The policy of the Superintendent, as explained to us, is most admirable. It is a policy of self-development and independendence, embracing not only a sufficient number of thoroughly equipped ward schools to furnish a good common school education, including the elements of drawing and music, to all the children of the city, but also a finely equipped High School for thorough academic training, and a Normal School connected with this for the special preparation of the teachers needed by the city.

The High School and the Normal School we observed in very successful operation. Both teachers and pupils impressed us favorably. The former appeared cultured, earnest and skillful; the latter, interested in their studies, ready in recitation, industrious and self-respectful. These two schools, however, have outgrown their very limited and otherwise imperfect accommodations. The city cannot reasonably much longer withhold from them the more spacious, convenient and healthful building they richly deserve.

The ward schools we saw appeared, in their sphere, not at all inferior to the High School. They are evidently well managed. Better discipline we never saw. In this they are not surpassed by our State Normal Schools.

That which chiefly excited our surprise in these ward schools was the number studying German, and especially the number of mere children. For instance, in the Plankinton School, which is perhaps the best in the city, out of an enrollment of 867 pupils—of whom only 82 are of German parentage—400 are studying this language. The most of these are of course very young—only from 7 or 8 to 12 years of age.

German is commenced in the ninth or next to the lowest grade, and is continued through the successive grades parallel with the study of English. In the Hadley School we listened to the ordinary recitation or exercise of a class in German belonging to the eighth grade. There were about thirty little boys and girls of the average age of seven or eight years, two-thirds of whom were of American parentage. The children had a very simple lesson in an illustrated German primer which they had previously studied. The class exercises were almost entirely oral, consisting of questions in German about the lesson. by the teacher, and answers in German by the children. Some of the latter also

wrote German words upon the blackboard.

Whatever may be said of the impropriety of the study of a foreign language by children of this tender age, candor compels us to say that during the class exercise these children *enjoyed* it in the highest degree. No other class we anywhere saw showed such eagerness and enthusiasm in recitation. It seemed to us that even if this work was bad pedagogy it was good *recreation.* If it created linguistic "muddle," it nevertheless gave the children a certain intellectual exhileration which was healthful.

But Supt. MacAlister strongly assured us that the study of German in no way interferes with the rapid and correct acquisition of English. Indeed, he thinks it actually facilitates that acquisition, as German is now taught in the schools of his city. His testimony was confirmed by that of others with whom we conversed. Nor, we confess, did we see any evidence that appeared to disprove their assertions.

Yet this to us had always appeared the rankest pedigogical heresy. It is so considered by the mass of educational thinkers and writers. Are these correct, or have they underrated the acquiring and discriminating powers of the youthful human mind? We will not here pretend to answer this question, but will simply say, in the true scientific spirit, that a grain of fact obtained from experiment ought to outweigh whole bundles of mere theories. Let this experiment be thoroughly tried in Milwaukee, under the exceedingly favorable circumstances now afforded by its school system, and let mere theorists pause until the verdict respecting that experiment be fairly and fully rendered.

Respecting the Kindergartens and the other private schools we visited, we must defer remarks until next month. Each is worthy of a separate article, but our scanty limits of space and time compel delay.

We simply add that we shall long bear in pleasant remembrance the courtesy of Superintendent MacAlister, as well as of Professors Hailman, Mueller and others, by whose kind attentions our visit was rendered enjoyable and profitable.

Another word we cannot refrain from recording for Milwaukee. The state may well be proud of this city. We were never before so impressed with its extent, its business activity, and the certainty of its steady future growth in wealth and prosperity.

AN EXPLANATION.

The editorial in our last issue, entitled "A Curiosity of Literature," has called forth the following response from New Hampshire. It must be accepted as sufficient excuse:

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
SUPERINTENDENT'S OFFICE,
CONCORD, N. H., Oct. 25, 1875.

Editors Wis. Jour. of Ed., Madison, Wis.:

On 23d inst. a friend informed me that you had noticed the failure of proper credit in my last report, for matter taken from the late Wisconsin School Report, in a discussion of the subject, "State School Tax."

Upon referring to the printed report and "copy"—the "proof" of that form I did not see—I am astonished that the printer omitted a note that should have appeared at the foot of page 284, viz.:

*"In discussing this topic, I am under obligations to the recent Wisconsin Report, by Hon. Edward Searing, Supt. Public Instruction. The arrangement and matter of the extracts are from that document."

As an act of justice to myself, I ask you to publish this explanation of an unintentional neglect.

Respectfully, J. W. SIMONDS,
Supt. Pub. Instruction.

THE FALL INSTITUTES, ETC.

While these have not in general, perhaps, been as largely attended as last year, the interest and profit of the meetings have been fully up to the average. The Conductors have in many places worked with more than their usual skill and success.

The presence of Dr. French has added no little interest and value to the sessions attended by him. Very satisfactory reports of both his lectures and his Institute work have come to us from every place he visited. His presence has also been a benefit to the Institute Conductors, in that they have necessarily receiv-

ed from him new ideas, in the mutual interchange of thought on the matter of their common work in widely remote states. On the other hand, we doubt not the Doctor is now working in the Institutes of the Empire State with renewed vigor from his two months' sojourn among Wisconsin teachers.

This occasional interchange of men and ideas is one of the best means of vigorous activity and progress. If some of our best Institute workers were to engage in a short campaign in New England or New York, it would doubtless be with mutual profit to localities and men.

SPARTA.

Monroe county, less favored by Nature than Vernon, is educationally in one respect, at least, far ahead of it. The schools of its chief town are among the best in the State. These we had the pleasure of visiting as we recently happened to be passing through that famous little city for the first time. What we observed and ascertained by inquiry is worthy of more than a passing notice.

Here is a little city of 3,227 inhabitants, spending more than ten thousand dollars annually on its schools, and spending it intelligently. There is a central High School for the intermediate and academic classes, and four separate primary schools conveniently located in different parts of the town. Two of these primaries have each two rooms and teachers, and two have each one room and teacher, thus employing in all six teachers. In the High School there are seven teachers. Eight ladies of the thirteen teachers employed in the city schools are graduates of Normal Schools—six from Winona and two from Oshkosh. The teachers are well paid and skillful. Prof. O. R. Smith, the efficient Principal and Superintendent, receives as much as a University professor—$2,000 per annum,—and this is richly earned by his ability, experience and success. The changes are as frequent as possible. The intelligent school board give the Principal full powers, and then hold him responsible for results, but, as he says, "watch him closely."

For clearness, we briefly enumerate again these excellent features: (1) Five school buildings, four primaries with six teachers, conveniently located, and a central High School (observe there is not here the mistake of crowding all the children like bees into a single building three or four stories high); (2) a liberal expenditure of money; (3) a *wise* expenditure of money, because; (4) The teachers are nearly all thoroughly trained for their work, and hence are skillful and successful; (5) broader facilities for academic instruction, preparatory to college or business, free to all the children. Pupils not residents of the city can share all its advantages on payment of a small tuition.

When will the wisdom of Sparta be the common wisdom of the cities and villages of Wisconsin? Her mineral water is excellent, her air salubrious, her summer attractions numerous; but her schools ought, perhaps, to be her chief pride.

THE TEXT BOOK LAW.

As the text book question again receives attention in this issue, we deem it advisable to republish the law of last winter providing for the public purchase and free use of school books in districts, towns, and cities:

An Act to provide for uniformity and the free use of text books in towns and cities.

The people of the State of Wisconsin represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. The qualified electors of any school district, or of any town in which the township system of school government has been adopted may, by legal vote, and the board of aldermen or board of trustees of any city or incorporated village may, by ordinance or resolution, authorize the school board or board of school directors of such district, town, or incorporated city or village to purchase text books for use in the public schools, such text books to be the property of the district, town, village, or city so purchasing, and to be loaned to pupils or otherwise furnished to them under such conditions and regulations as the aforesaid school authorities may prescribe.

Section 2. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage and publication.

SOME further information respecting Free High Schools, partially promised in our last number, is necessarily delayed until next month.

RIVER FALLS NORMAL SCHOOL.

By an unfortunate oversight no mention was made in our last issue of one of the most important educational events occurring in our state during the year—the opening of the Fourth Wisconsin State Normal School, located at River Falls, in Pierce county.

The building for this school, the largest, most substantial and convenient yet erected by the Board of Regents, was formally dedicated on the 2d of September, in the presence of the Regents, the Faculty, and a large assemblage of citizens. Addresses were given by Hon. Wm. Starr, President of the Board; Prof. Wm. D. Parker, President of the School; State Superintendent Searing, and Hon. W. H. Chandler, member of the Executive Committee of the Regents.

The following constitute the Faculty of the School at the present time:

President W. D. Parker.
Professor J. B. Thayer.
Professor Albert Earthman.
Miss L. E. Foote.
Miss L. G. Lovell.
Miss M. Hosford.
Miss M. A. Kelly.
Miss L. J. Curtis.

The number of students in attendance, according to the latest advices, is as follows:

Normal School pupils	53
Normal School preparatory	30
Grammar School	40
Intermediate class	60
Primary class	40
Total	223

The last two classes constitute the Model School.

The aggregate of students is already too large for the present limited Faculty. President Parker reports, however, the best of feeling as existing among the students, and everything moving on satisfactorily thus far.

The limited facilities in that part of the state for aught beyond elementary culture, will involve for some time the necessity for a large amount of preparatory academic work in the school. No less than 170 came to the school expecting to enter the Normal Department. The examinations, as the above figures show, indicated a greatly reduced number as qualified for entrance therein.

River Falls Normal School, with a large and important part of the State tributary to it, has a great work before it. The State looks to it for large results, and we think it will not be disappointed. The success of the other schools, the experience and ability of President Parker, and the watchful care of the Regents, render assured the large usefulness and popularity of this important addition to our educational means.

VIROQUA.

Probably the largest Institute held in the state during the year was at Viroqua, in Vernon county. Having the pleasure of attending this, among others, we found Professors McGregor and North doing their work most effectively and genially, and the members evidently in earnest in their efforts to secure benefit from the session.

Vernon, while one of the most fertile and desirable counties in the state, is sadly deficient in educational advantages. We therefore took occasion, in our talk to the citizens and teachers, to urge a complete re-organization of the village school, under the new High School Law, and its adaptation to the needs not only of the village, but, in its academic department, to the entire county. The interest with which the advice was received both by the young people and by the business and professional men of the place led us to entertain more sanguine hopes for the educational future of the excellent county of Vernon and its pleasant village capital, Viroqua.

Superintendent Wyman is doing for the common schools of the county all that energy and general fitness can under the circumstances accomplish. He is one of the excellent superintendents whom the people should appreciate and support; but in the present lack of higher educational facilities in the county, the common schools must labor to a great extent under the burden of incompetent instruction.

HISTORICAL LECTURES.

Prof. Searing is willing to accept a few engagements to lecture during the coming winter, before Lyceums and other Literary Associations, in places not too far, and easily accessible from Madison. His terms are so moderate as easily to leave a margin of profit for the benefit of the Association. The following subjects are offered as especially fruitful in interest and instruction:

1. MOHAMMEDANISM: Its Founder, its Character, its Propagation, and its Influence on Christianity and General Civilization.
2. FRANCE: Her instability and the anomalies of her history due to national genius, and not to institutions. A lecture containing new and little known facts concerning the government of Napoleon III., the Catholic Church, the Mexican Expedition, and the School Systems of France and Germany.
3. RUSSIA: Her remarkable early history, her genius and destiny.

NORMAL SCHOOL VISITORS.

The following Boards of Visitors have been appointed by the State Superintendent for the year ending August 31st, 1876:

PLATTEVILLE NORMAL SCHOOL.

James MacAlister, Milwaukee.
R. W. Burton, Janesville.
Albert Watkins, Mineral Point.

WHITEWATER NORMAL SCHOOL.

A. L. Chapin, Beloit.
E. B. Wood, Oshkosh.
J. T. Lunn, Ironton.

OSHKOSH NORMAL SCHOOL.

John Bascom, Madison.
Jno. M. Read, Kewaunee.
C. E. Warner, Windsor.

RIVER FALLS NORMAL SCHOOL.

E. E. Woodman, Baraboo.
A. J. Hutton, Eau Claire.
Chas. E. Mears, Osceola Mills.

PROF. PORTER, of the Palmyra High School, reports 200 pupils in attendance, under the instruction of four teachers,—twenty being non-residents, and paying a tuition fee of $1.50 per month. He also reports a fine literary society, a Shakesperian club, and a course of lectures organized for the winter. This is admirable. All honor to a village that organizes and sustains such means of culture and progress. We meditate a devout pilgrimage to Palmyra for the refreshing of our true inwardness.

FREE HIGH SCHOOLS.

The following forms may be useful:

CALL FOR SPECIAL TOWN MEETING.

To —— ——, Town Clerk of the town of ——, county of ——, Sir:

We, the undersigned qualified voters of said town, respectfully request you to call a special town meeting to take action relative to the establishment of a Free High School in said town, in pursuance of chapter 323 of the General Laws of 1875; also, in case such school shall be established, to raise a tax for the support of the same.

This call must be signed by at least twelve qualified voters of the town. In case it is desired simply to take a vote on the question of establishing a high school, the latter part of the call will of course be omitted.

NOTICE FOR SPECIAL TOWN MEETING.

Request having been made to me by —— qualified voters, notice is hereby given to the electors of the town of ——, in the county of ——, State of Wisconsin, that a special town meeting will be held in said town, at ——, on the —— day of ——, A. D. 1875, between the hours of —— o'clock in the ——noon, for the purpose of taking action relative to the establishment of a Free High School in said town, in pursuance of chapter 323 of the General Laws of 1875: and that the vote thereon will be taken —— [*viva voce*, or, *by ballot*. See note.] at —— o'clock in the ——noon of said day; also, that in case a majority of the electors present shall vote to establish such school, a vote will be taken on raising a town tax to support the same.

—— ——, Town Clerk.

Dated this —— day of ——, 1875.

NOTE.– The town authorities will fill this blank with the words *viva voce* or with the words *by ballot*, as they shall judge proper; if the vote is ordered to be taken by ballot, it is not necessary to state the hour at which it will be taken. The electors when assembled may determine that it shall be by ballot although the notice says *viva voce*.

THE State Superintendent will soon issue a call for the usual annual convention of county and city superintendents, to meet in Madison at the time of the executive session of the State Teachers' Association, the last week in December. Important subjects will be before them for consideration.

MISS AGNES HOSFORD is elected Superintendent of Eau Claire county.

ORGANIZATION.

In the newly awakened interest felt of late in many places in the improvement of our schools, the subject of organization will demand close attention. The following remarks are pertinent therefore at this time:

The progress of schools in this country is measured at every step by the progress in thorough organization and the establishment of minute supervision. The principle of division of labor is advantageously used. A good supervisor relieves the subordinate teacher of the feeling of responsibility to such an extent that she is able to devote her time more fully to details. The supervising principal is able, by well directed assistance and advice, to strengthen a weak teacher, and in a short time to secure good from her. We have many examples in our schools, of radical cures of this kind. Teachers who have failed for years have, under careful supervision, developed into good teachers and remained such. After their reform they have exhibited great skill in the application of their strength. Previously they they had wasted what little power they possessed in trying to accomplish results by wrong methods. They had, for example, stood before their scholars and ordered silence, addressing their command to the whole school, and thus paralyzing their whole effort. They had undertaken to check gross disorder by wholesale punishment, or by scolding the entire school. Their strength not being equal to the task of forcing all the pupils in a mass, they had lost confidence in themselves and settled into a kind of apathy, broken only by spasmodic attempts to secure discipline. The supervisor's first lesson to them was the requirement that they should notice little things and small beginnings; become attentive to minute formalities; and when the teacher has learned how to repress her inclination to scold or punish indiscriminately, and has acquired the habit of noting the manner of performing the smallest formalities, she is on the way toward success. No teacher is strong enough to force a whole school at once—to control it at arm's length. But no teacher is so weak (such is our experience) that she cannot have good discipline by insisting upon the performance of minute formalities. The wise teacher will conquer the chaos of arbitrariness and caprice by introducing order in little things, continually formulating what is accidental and irrational into the universal and reasonable. The teacher who is strong enough to secure the performance of one of these small formalities can secure everything by persistence.—*Sup't Harris, St. Louis.*

THE KINDERGARTEN.

Many of our readers doubtless are ready to ask: What is the purpose of Kindergarten Education? A brief answer is furnished in the following paragraphs:

It is to develop the child and all its faculties, while checking all propensities to evil, in a natural manner; the "New Education" may be regarded as analogous to the treatment of plants by the gardener's art.

It is to associate children with children, in a pure atmosphere, amid pleasant surroundings, and under a special guidance.

It is to afford children all rational enjoyment proper for them, to supply them with toys and games, to sing with them, to play with them,—the toys, games, songs and plays being all covert instruments of instruction.

It is to promote children's healthy activity; later to awaken their imagination gradually to the influence of the beautiful, the true, and the good; to encourage their imitative capacity; to watch the development of their reason; and to give those properties free exercise and a right direction;—in other words, to develop children from within outwards.

It is to prevent any undue strain on children's powers mental or physical.—to teach by means of object lessons involved in plays rather than books.

It is to induce a well-balanced mind, to discern and bring out gently but surely any talented apitude for intellectual acquirements of manual skill.

It is to apply the maternal instinct intelligently, to make the conscientious mother in easy circumstances her child's true educator during its tenderest years.

It is to relieve parents of narrow means partially of the charge of their very young children for part of the day, and during that time to train them properly.

It is finally to prepare children for school, to fit them for learning more readily, to sow the first seeds that are to yield adults of sound mind in a sound body.—good citizens and true christians.

TEACHER'S REGISTER.—For the mutual convenience of school authorities and heads of institutions having occasion to employ teachers, principals or professors, at any time, and those seeking engagements of this kind, D. Appleton & Co. have prepared a register for a systematic record of all applications for positions, and requisitions for teachers. It is intended to give all necessary particulars in each case, so that school authorities seeking eligible teachers, or professors for any department, may be placed in immediate communication with the proper parties.

No charge is made for their services. Blanks giving full information, will be forwarded on receipt of stamp for postage. Teachers and schools are cordially invited to avail themselves of the facilities we offer whenever occasion may require. They will esteem it a favor to be notified of a vacancy that teachers or others may hear of at any time. Address D. Appleton & Co., 549 and 551 Broadway, New York.

ACADEMY AT WHITEWATER.—This pleasant village is a favored spot. Besides the Normal School it now has the "Whitewater Collegiate Institute, a Seminary for young ladies and gentlemen." The Rev. C. N. Stowers, late of Milwaukee, and S. R. Winchell, late principal of the Milwaukee High School, are associate principals in the enterprise. The *Register* informs us that the Institute opened Oct. 18th, as advertised, "with an encouraging attendance and promise of patronage, considering all the circumstances." This class of schools is one much needed in the state, and we are glad to chronicle an addition to their number.

PROF. LOVEWELL, we are sorry to say, did not accept the place offered him at Whitewater, as professor of Natural Science. Prof. Kleeberger, who now fills the post, is a graduate of the Platteville Normal School, and has for sometime been a student at the Sheffield Scientific Institute, New Haven, Conn.

HOME ITEMS.

A KINDERGARTEN has been opened at Sheboygan by Miss Lucy Thayer.—W. A. Walker is superintendent in Manitowoc county, vice M. Kirwan, resigned.—Geo. C. Bannan is Principal of the Kenosha High School.—I. N. Stewart has taken charge at Grand Rapids. A. H. Craig has been appointed superintendent in his place, in Waukesha county.—Mrs. John Allison has opened an academy at Sparta.—W. W. Ray, from St. Joseph, Mich., is Principal at Mineral Point.—W. J. Brown has gone from Wauwatosa to Waukesha.—Carroll College (Waukesha), opened this yerr with 95 students.—A. C. Wallin is one of the Principals at Prairie du Chien.—F. B. Smith is in charge at River Falls.—Supt. Spencer's Institute at Princeton, Green Lake county, enrolled 85 members.—W. J. Brier has gone from Baraboo to Plymouth.—J. G. Davies is Principal at Waupaca.—Whitewater Normal School has now three terms in the year instead of two.—The Model Departments of the new Normal School at River Falls are both full.—Marathon county lately held its Eighth Annual Institute.—Miss Hattie Corning took the prize as best speller at the Columbia County Institute.

☞ Business Matters. ☜

Bills have been sent out to subscribers in arrears for 1875. We shall esteem it a favor if all indebted will remit promptly, that the accounts for the year may be closed up. We should also be glad if those whose subscriptions are due for a part of 1875 would remit for that portion of the year—ending with December—at the same rate as the original subscription, with the addition of 5 cents say for postage. We wish to square up every thing to the close of the year and volume.

THE STATE UNIVERSITY has in attendance upwards of 450 students, 80 of whom are in the Freshman Class The number of them in the Classical Course is double what it was a year ago, which we hail as a good omen.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

ART CULTURE, a Hand Book of Art Technicalities and Criticisms, from the Works of John Ruskin. By Rev. W. H. Platt. New York: John Wiley & Son.

Into a logical mould of arrangement of topics in art, including Painting, Sculpture and Architecture, the two last being but briefly treated, the compiler with excellent judgment and taste has poured the gold found in Ruskin's treasure house. The book grew out of notes made in teaching art-lecture classes, and is we should say the highest and best authority in the form of a class or text-book to be found. For Ruskin seems to have appeared as the true prophet of the gospel of beauty, in an age, when art, though widely cultivated, is in great danger of deterioration and abuse. The key note to his teachings is that true art rests on a moral basis. In this point of view his writings have a most healthy and elevating tendency. But beside this, his development of art-principles and his searching criticisms are beyond all praise. We could wish some of the present furor about "English Literature" were turned to the study of this admirable book.

A CLASS BOOK OF CHEMISTRY. By E. L. Youmans. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is a revised and much improved edition of a work which first appeared in 1852. It is based on the "new system," and is an admirable resume of the science in its more recent developments and discoveries. It goes over the three departments of Chemical Physics, (including a very interesting chapter on Spectrum Analysis), Chemical Principles and Descriptive Chemistry. The science is peculiarly attractive for the reason that it involves so much of the exactitude of mathematics, and yet arouses the imagination by its novelties and never ending developments. The book before us is not intended as a manual for the special student, but is well adapted to the wants of the general reader, and that large class of students who wish so much acquaintance with the subject as belongs to a wide and varied culture. The author's reputation as an accomplished chemist and lucid writer is well known.

THE TEACHER'S HAND BOOK, for the Institute and for the Class Room. By W. F. PHELPS, Principal of the State Normal School, Winona, Minnesota. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co. Price $1.50, post-paid.

This book is noticeable as paying a good deal of attention to the matter of Institutes and institute work. This is well, as for the mass of teachers institute training is about all the professional training they get. The work also discusses General Principles, A Course of Instruction, Recitation, Methods and Formation of Character. Mr. Phelps is not one of those cautious writers who simply record what has been settled and determined, but puts forth his own thoughts with frankness and boldness. Hence he makes you think, and if you don't agree with him you are put upon the task of finding out why, and in the process you may conclude that you do, on the whole. Several chapters are occupied with searching Professional Questions, of a practical character.

AN ELEMENTARY MANUAL OF LATIN PROSE COMPOSITION. By S. R. Winchell, A. M., (late Principal Milwaukee High School.) Philadelphia: J. H. Butler & Co. 142 pp. 12 mo.

The old way of teaching Latin, when we were young, which was by analysis alone, or almost wholly so, was manifestly imperfect. The same exercise of common sense which now dictates that synthesis shall play an important part in studying the mother-tongue is applied to other languages. A boy would learn something about a locomotive by taking it to pieces, but a good deal more by putting one together. So with his Latin. Though he may never practically use the ability to compose in that tongue, it adds exceedingly to the discipline imparted by the study. Mr. Winchell has done good service in adding another manual to those already in use. Instead of referring to the current grammars, the grammati-

cal principles are concisely re-stated, in connection with each lesson, and this feature, together with the progressive vocabularies, the index to synonyms and an English-Latin vocabulary, puts the whole apparatus needed by the student before him. The book strikes us with much favor.

A TEXT-BOOK ON CIVIL GOVERNMENT, in the United States. By GEORGE H. MARTIN, Teacher of Civil Polity, etc., in Bridgwater (Mass.) Normal School. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York and Chicago. Price $1.25, post paid.

This book is less dry and technical than some of those issued on the subject. It presents underlying principles clearly, explains, county, city and town government as well as state and national, giving the civil history of the different colonies and states so far as they differed in their forms of government, and presenting the subject by topics with proper omission of useless details. For students of sufficient advancement, and taught in the way the author recommends—by discussion rather than by formal recitation—there is no doubt the subject may be made both interesting and useful. For a class-book it is about the best we have examined, but it would be improved by additional chapters on county and town government as they exist in the west, where the types somewhat differ from those at the east. There, the town is most prominent; here the county.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE WISCONSIN STATE HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY—1875. Madison: E. B. Bolens, State Printer.

This volume contains besides the Annual Address by President Stickney, of Wauwatosa, and the Transactions and Discussions at the Annual Meeting, many valuable papers, presenting almost every topic interesting to horticulturists. The varied contents were prepared for the press by the late Secretary Geo. E. Morrow, and the Recording Secretary, F. W. Case. Notice is made of several local societies, which it is to be hoped will multiply in number.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE WISCONSIN STATE AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY. Vol. XIII., 1874–75. Prepared by W. W. Field. Secretary. Madison: E. B. Bolens, State Printer.

This volume is of more than common interest. Besides more formal and routine matter, the Report of Secretary Field, the Addresses by President Stilson, at the Annual Convention and Exhibition, and the reports of Superintendents of Departments, we find Addresses and Papers not only on Agriculture in its more general aspects, but on a variety of special and related subjects, as stock, horses, bees and fish; the dairy, orchard, garden and lawn; soils, gypsum and peat; agricultural machinery and lightning rods; hard times, interest, currency and monopolies; dress and women's advancement. In a paper by Hon. M. K. Young, on the Need of Organization among Producers, we find the following remarks, which are well worth pondering:

"The popular movements in constituting authority in public affairs should be changed. The caucus system, as now run, is a boisterous failure or sneaking sham in the transfer of power, leading all honest observers to the conviction that if all experience has been able to furnish no better, neither chance nor intention could possibly furnish any worse. It should be abolished, or the attendance of all voters should be made compulsory. And the ballot should be made compulsory also. * * * * *

"There is no reason why the state should educate the growing citizen to fit him for voting and then lose it all by leaving it to his discretion. In allowing voters to absent themselves from the polls the rule of the majority becomes utterly impracticable."

NATIONAL SCHOOL SINGER, for Day Schools and Juvenile Singing Classes. Published by A. S. Barnes & Co., New York and Chicago. Price 35 cents.

This is evidently not a chance medley of odds and ends, but a collection of school songs above the ordinary article, both in music and sentiment, embracing quite a number of original pieces. We do not know who have been concerned in the compilation, but they have done a good work and the publishers have done a good thing in issuing the book.

INDEX RERUM; or, Index of Subjects, with an Introduction. By JOHN TODD, D. D., author of the "Student's Manual." Northampton, Mass: Bridgman & Childs.

This is another old friend, not so much with a new face as a new dress. Many eminent men have recommended keeping a common-place book of one's reading, arranged in a manner convenient for reference. Not one of the least benefits of the practice is the cultivation it gives to the student's power of condensation. Carried out with good judgment and perseverence, such books become valuable repositories of thought. It is not a bad thing to have one for your own thoughts (if you happen to have any worth preserving), as well as for those of other people. Then if you fill several such books you have the means of measuring your mental growth. No industrious student will regret the purchase and use of this valuable help to the preservation of his gains.

PRACTICAL ETHICS, for Schools and Families. By MATILDA FLETCHER. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York, Chicago and N. Orleans. Price, $1.00, post-paid.

We imagine the excellent authoress of this unique book to belong to the worthy people known as Friends. At all events she is imbued with their spirit of high moral discernment. The work is in the form of question and answer, which on such a subject has its advantages. The subject is illustrated and made more attractive to the young by means of an ingenious chart, in which the moral virtues are shown to depend upon Love, Reflection, Conscience and Will. The book contains no more than might be easily gone through in any common school, as a general exercise, to the great benefit of both teacher and pupils, and is also an admirable book for the family.

MANUAL OF ALGEBRA. By WM. G. PECK, LL. D., Prof. of Mathematics, etc., in Columbia College. A. S. Barnes, & Co., New York, Chicago and New Orleans.

This treatise first appeared as the well known University Algebra in the Davies' Mathematical Course. The author was at that time associated with Prof. Davies in the Department of Mathematics in Columbia College. It now appears in a revised form, as part of his own Mathematical Series. The old work was received with great favor. The new one exhibits several improvements. It carries out even more fully than the former issue, the spirit and ideas of Bourdon, one of the great masters of the science. The mechanical execution of the book is admirable. It will be sent post-paid for $1.60.

SCHEDLER'S MANUAL for the use of the globes is published by E. Steiger, 22 and 24, Frankfort street, New York, and is not only valuable but very interesting. The discussion of the International Date-Line is peculiarly so, and is a subject very imperfectly treated in the geographies. Price 25 cents.

BACK NUMBERS.

We have enough of the back numbers advertised for last month, except the following: March, April, May and December, 1871; February, 1872; June, 1873.

We would like a few copies of June and July, 1875, and will return the postage on any sent to us by subscribers who do not care to preserve them.

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WISCONSIN

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

VOL. V. DECEMBER, 1875. No. XII.

Abstract of the Report of the Commissioner of Education, for the Year 1874.

The Commissioner, after alluding to the financial embarrassments which have affected the prosperity of the schools during the year, the proper work of the Office in collecting and disseminating information for the use of educators, the difficulties encountered in studying the numerous and different school systems in vogue, and the importance of complete and continuous records of the forces at work and the results obtained, proceeds to mention the

SOURCES OF MATERIAL USED IN THE REPORT.

These are: (1) all educational information printed by authority, either in the form of reports or catalogues or educational journals; (2) the returns made directly to the Bureau by State or city educational officials, or by the principals of schools, colleges, etc., on the blanks furnished, from which the statistical tables are made; (3) other communications made directly to the Bureau by teachers and officers, of systems or institutions of education.

The forms used were those adopted by the National Educational Association in 1874. These were commended to the Bureau by the official representatives of several States and cities, and were immediately accepted and published for the consideration of all State and city school officers. It should be remembered that certain features of the statistical reports from some of the States and cities are fixed by law. In some cities the nomenclature was determined by the action of the school board or committee. The changes, therefore, necessary in the adoption of the forms recommended involved in some cases legislation and in others additional action by the city boards. Any one who has attempted a generalization of facts from the several State and city school reports will have some conception of this difficult task and of the efforts that have been made by the school officials throughout the country, which make it possible to present what will be found in the State and city tables of the Report. It should be added that the present forms are by no means considered perfect. Already valuable suggestions have come in from educators; but it is deemed best to make these changes slowly, and only with the fullest advice of those interested.

SCIENCE AND EDUCATION.

That education is unworthy of the name, which disregards science. Not only are the knowledge and practice of scientific methods of culture essential, but all the demonstrative work of the educator must be brought to the test of science and practice. Equally necessary is it that all facts and statistics should be properly grouped and recorded, all methods and systems scrutinized and compared, and all the fruits of experience gar-

nered for future instruction. These give, when understood, the science of education. In the universal adoption of this method will be found the remedy for the defects in educational systems now everywhere the subject of complaint. To reach and apply it, observations and records must be accurate, complete. The misapprehensions which so often prevail respecting the uses and methods of scientific instruction are due, in a great measure, to the lack of information extant on these subjects. Teachers, school officers and educators generally have it in their power to supply information and correct misapprehensions. Every addition to the record of scientific results, in whatever form, which carries conviction on these points, to a mind that did not possess it before, wisely contributes to the discharge of this responsibility. The possible difference of views among careful and competent observers of the many phases of school work may suggest to teachers the care to be taken in presenting correctly what their schools do. The parents and the community should see and understand the whole precisely as it is This is impossible without considerable effort.

STATE AND TERRITORIAL REPORTS.

All the States and Territories are able now to report their school population, and the increase for the year is 416,125. This increase becomes apparent only in those States which annually enumerate a school population, and not those which unfortunately use for each decade the returns of the United States census. It is gratifying to observe the growing determination of each State to take an annual census of the school population. Four States (one less than in 1873) cannot report the number enrolled in the public schools, and yet there will be noticed an increased enrollment of 164,385. Only 30 States can report the number in daily attendance, (one less than in 1873,) and yet an increase of 321,825 is reported. Thirty-five out of 37 States, and 8 out of 11 territories report the number of teachers. The increase—exclusive of 148 from two Territories not reporting last year—is 24,223. Thirty-seven States and 11 Territories report the public school income. which shows an increase for the year of $1,232,656; but only 35 States and 9 Territories can show their school expenditures.

EXPENDITURE FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The Commissioner presents a statement showing the expenditure *per capita* of school enumeration, and the expenditure *per capita* of pupils enrolled in public schools in the different States and Territories for 1874.

Massachusetts heads the list with an expenditure *per capita* of school enumeration of $14.70; of pupils enrolled in public schools of $14.48. The remaining States report the following:

	Per capita of enumeration.	Per capita of enrollment.
Ohio	$11 40	$8 57
Louisiana	11 00	....
Nebraska	10 72	18 50
Rhode Island	10 40	11 55
Connecticut	9 47	10 83
Vermont	7 04	8 89
New York	6 94	10 61
Iowa	6 68	9 29
Michigan	5 85	7 80
New Jersey	5 82	9 30
Indiana	5 70	9 03
Illinois	5 60	7 82
Maine	4 94	8 72
Maryland	4 51	9 17
Wisconsin	4 16	6 80
West Virginia	4 14	....
Minnesota	4 06	6 63
Missouri	3 00	5 70
Mississippi	2 89	4 54
Tennessee	2 09	3 40
Virginia	2 02	5 08
South Caralina.	1 95	4 28
Alabama	87½	....
Georgia	68	1 95
New Hampshire	7 05	....
Florida	6 59	....
Dist. Columbia	10 70	18 98
Montana	7 90	15 68
Colorado	7 28	18 84
Arizona	4 41	33 28
Utah	2 73	5 09
Chero. Nation	7 40	15 25

THE DIVERSITY OF SCHOOL AGE IN THE DIFFERENT STATES A HINDERANCE TO A JUST COMPARISON OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

The Report shows the efforts that have been made to establish a basis for just comparison. The Commissioner, referring to his last Report, indicates how this can be secured on a few of the es-

sential points, while each locality, State or city, and each institution, preserves, in the highest degree, its individuality or specialties. If each State furnished by accurate census the number and average attendance of children between 6 and 16, (the usual limits of school age,) most valuable comparative lessons could be drawn. Ohio provides by law for such an enumeration, and in the last report of her school commissioner the number of school population, 6 to 21, was given as 985,947, while the number between 6 and 16 was 737,272, being about 75 per cent. of the legal school population.

The legal school age in the several States and Territories is: In Connecticut and Utah, 4–6; Oregon and Wisconsin, 4–20; Maine, New Hampshire, Montana and Washington, 4–21; Massachusetts and Rhode Island, 5–15; California, 5–17; New Jersey, 5–18; Michigan, Vermont, and Wyoming, 5–20; Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New York, Virginia, Colorado, Dakota, and Idaho, 5–21; South Carolina and Indian Territory, 6–16; District of Columbia, 6–17; Georgia, Nevada, Tennessee and Texas, 6–18; Kentucky, 6–20; Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Maryland, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, West Virginia and Arizona, 6–21.

The attention of persons desiring to compare the public school systems is especially invited to this point of difference.

SUMMARY OF EDUCATIONAL CONDITION IN THE STATES FOR 1874.

NEW ENGLAND STATES.

Maine, without the stimulus of an influx of population, shows an increase of only 40 in children of school age during the year; but the enrollment in public summer schools was 5,708 in advance of 1873, and the average attendance in the schools 4,930 in advance. The increase in the public school income was $223,178; in expenditure, $167,042; in number of school-houses, 14; in value of school property, $140,075. The normal schools have trained during the year 587 pupils, and 163 towns and cities availing themselves of the provisions of a recent act, have established that number of additional free high schools, imparting, without charge, to 14,828 students, good secondary training. The State college had, at the close of 1874, 121 students; other colleges, 355; professional schools, 145.

New Hampshire reports an increase of 6 in the number of school-houses, but a decrease of 696 in the number of scholars registered; though the number from four to fourteen years of age not attending any school was brought down from 3,680 in 1873 to 2,593 in 1874. There is a decrease of 45 in the number of male teachers, and an increase of 34 female teachers; the average monthly pay of the former (including board) has increased from $40.78 to $44 87, and that of the latter from $23.84 to $24.99. The methods of instruction are said to be better than they have been, and drawing and vocal music receive more attention in many schools. The State Normal School reports 122 pupils and 28 graduates in 1874. Secondary instruction has been given in 34 high high schools and 52 academies; and the one college, with its associated scientific and agricultural departments, reports 54 professors and tutors and 281 students, besides 8 professors and 78 students in the medical department. The State has made a direct contribution to the normal school and State agricultural college, but cut off the appropriation for teachers' institutes.

Vermont, with an increase of 6,056 in school population, (5 to 20,) shows a decrease of 16,557 in attendance on all schools. At the same time, the number of teachers was 292 greater than in 1873, there were 90 more school-houses and 133 more in good condition, and $80,399 were expended on new school-houses against $58,429 in 1873. The State board of education has been abolished and a State superintendent of public instruction substituted for it. The 3 State normal schools report 401 students, of whom 99 were graduated. Secondary instruction has been given in 87 incorporated academies and county grammar schools. The 3 colleges give an aggregate of 186 under-

graduate, with 51 medical, students in the autumn of 1874.

From Massachusetts the report is more favorable, showing an increase of 7,270 in the attendance on public schools, and in all the schools of probably 9,000; also, an increase of $364,157.37 in receipts from taxation for school purposes. The average monthly pay of male teachers has been about double that in the two adjacent northern States and that of female teachers about $9 more. The sum of $1,646,670.35 was spent during the year for building and repairing school-houses. Instruction in drawing (now general in all the city schools) has made most encouraging advance. The 4 older normal schools report 1,133 pupils, of whom 182 were graduated, and the new one at Worcester, 69 pupils. In the normal art school were 188 pupils, 55 more than the preceding year. Secondary instruction was given, in 209 high schools, in at least 50 academies, and in 21 preparatory schools, to perhaps 20,000 pupils. In 2 universities and 5 colleges were 1,517 collegiate students; in 4 scientific schools, 547 students; and in theological, medical and legal courses, 1,020.

In Rhode Island, the receipts for public schools were $155,900.28 more than in 1873; the increased expenditure for them, $88,039.25; the registration of pupils, the same for the two years; the number of teachers, greater by 264 than in 1873, and their average pay larger; the number of evening schools and of their pupils, both considerably larger. Secondary instruction was given in 12 high schools, 4 academies, 5 preparatory schools, and one business college. The State normal school had 141 students, and the 1 college of the State, 253.

Connecticut shows an increase of $99,820.19 in receipts for school purposes, an increase of $70,357.51 paid for teachers' wages, an aggregate of $226,705.88 expended for new school houses, and a greater registration by nearly $4,000 in her public schools, though other schools show a considerable decrease. The 1 normal school had 180 students; the high schools and academies, upwards of 5,000; the colleges, 955 in collegiate and 248 in scientific courses; the professional schools, 265 studying theology, law and medicine.

MIDDLE STATES.

New York reports a gross receipt of $12,088,762.95 for public schools, $532,725 more than for the preceding year. Of this sum, $7,415,181.39 was expended for teachers' wages, $1,994,132 for school-house sites and buildings, $294,145.68 for school apparatus; 27,203.79 for school district libraries, and $74,611.49 for schools for colored children. To 78 academies, in which 1,661 students were being trained as teachers, $47,861.98 were given; and to 8 State normal schools, with 2,913 normal pupils, $159,027.79, this not including, it is believed, what New York city gave its normal schools, which had in them 1,300 pupils. The number of pupils in public schools was 1,030,779; in private schools, 135,956; in normal schools, 6,319; in academies, 27,887; in colleges, 3,414; in professional and scientific schools, about 3,600.

In New Jersey the number of pupils in the public schools was 186,392, an increase of 6,949 over the previous year. The whole revenue for maintenance of the schools, besides $613,237 for building school-houses, was $1,691,160.29, a decrease of $145,192.82 from that of the preceding year, owing to a deficiency of local tax to supplement the State appropriation. There were 85 more teachers than last year, 13 more school-buildings, and 194 more school departments; and the cost per scholar was $3.33 less. In private schools there 36,527 pupils, and 71,895 children of school age are supposed to have attended no school. The State normal school had 269 pupils; the Farnum preparatory school, 12; and in 3 city normal schools were nearly 80 candidates for teachership, besides 250 teachers preparing for higher work. The number of high schools and pupils does not appear, but 3,13 pupils are reported in 36 academies and 4 preparatory schools; 253 in 3 business colleges; 110 in the preparatory classes of colleges; 645 in the collegiate

classes; 181 in 3 scientific schools, and 295 in 4 theological seminaries.

Pennsylvania reports an increase in school-districts of 21; in schools, of 336; in graded schools, of 279; in teachers, of 238; in pupils registered, of 16,754; in average attendance, of 31,608; in expenditure for tuition, of $201,510.56; for buildings, fuel, and contingencies, of $301,-298 91; and for all school purposes, of $502,103.47; the total for the last mentioned, including normal schools and orphan schools, reaching $9,408,819.37. Of this sum, $110,000 went to the 8 normal schools, which had 2,915 normal pupils, besides 941 in model schools. About 40,-000 pupils appear to be engaged in secondary studies; about 2,300 in classical courses, and about 300 in scientific courses of the colleges; 570 in theological, 56 in legal, and 1,109 in medical studies.

Deleware remained, in 1874, under her old and ineffective school law; had a few academies and seminaries, which gave secondary training to from 400 to 500 pupils; and the State college, which had 45 students. A new school law was, however, enacted early in 1875, in which the modern improvements in organization, including State supervision, were adopted.

Maryland appears to have received for public schools $59,699.71 less than in the preceding year, but to have expended on them $108,824.70 more, increasing her schools by 60 and her teachers by 134. There has been considerable increase in the expenditure for teachers' salaries, for building school-houses, and for books. The State normal school had, during the year, 174 pupils, and the school for training colored teachers, 246. In the Baltimore City college, in 18 academies aided by the State, in 7 preparatory schools of colleges, and in 20 independent schools, about 4,600 pupils have been in seconnary studies; in 7 colleges there have been 477 in collegiate; in 2 schools of science, 373; and in 11 professional schools. 732 have been studying theology, medicine or law.

SOUTHERN STATES.

Virginia shows an increase in receipts for public schools of $54,570.97; in expenditures on them, of $58,651.21; in the number of schools, of 205; in the number of graded schools, of 32; in the number of new school buildings, of 263; in the number of teachers, of 205; and in the enrollment of pupils, of 13,016. There has been a slight advance, too, in teachers' wages; an improvement in school buildings and furniture, and, in the absence of a normal school for whites, an increased instruction of teachers at county institutes. Two schools for training colored teachers have had about 300 pupils. In 27 academies, 11 higher female seminaries, 7 preparatory schools, and 1 business college, 3,034 students have been under training. In 8 colleges and universities there were 1,209 undergraduates; in 2 scientific schools, 484; and in 9 profesrional schools, 388.

No report was made in North Carolina for 1874. It is believed, however that about 3,500 public schools were taught, and attended by over 100,000 white, and over 50,000 colored children. In 2 normal schools there were 94 students; in 28 schools for secondary training, 1,500; in 4 colleges, 267; and in two professional schools, 75.

South Carolina reports a net receipt of $478,767.37 for public schools, and an expenditure of $431,500.34 upon them; with an enrollment of 44,470 white and 56,249 colored children. There was an increase of 162 teachers, of 196 schools, and of 192 new school-houses. From 6 academies, 1 institute, and 7 higher schools for females, 895 pupils were reported; in the university and 6 colleges, 436 preparatory and 287 collegiate, with 20 students of agriculture, 126 of theology, 16 of law and 61 of medicine.

Georgia reports 2,223 free schools for white, and 669 for colored children, with an enrollment of 84, 673 whites and 37,-267 colored; 617 private elementary schools, with 25,745 pupils; 86 private high schools, with 4,957 pupils; 11 colleges, with 833 students; to which number the Bureau can add at least 800 more in female colleges, and 721 in scientific and professional schools.

From Florida the information is im-

perfect, in consequence of the death of State Superintendent Gibbs, before the report for the year could be made. Still there appears to be improvement, the receipts for school purposes being $5,735.23 more than the previous year, and the expenditures $28,481.61 more. The increase in the number of schools was 46 and of pupils 1,586. The State Agricultural College was still in abeyance, its funds locked up in State securities.

In Alabama the embarrassments of 1872–'73 continued, greatly affecting all the lower schools. The normal schools, private and public, seem, however to have gone forward, having about 500 pupils. In 7 secondary schools, 782 pupils were reported, and in 8 colleges 331 preparatory students, 274 collegiate, 108 agricultural and mechanical, 8 theological and 95 medical.

In Louisiana the State Superintendent of Instruction speaks hopefully of the educational condition, though he admits that in many instances treasurers have been unfaithful, directors negligent, and teachers miserably ill paid. Race prejudices have also sometimes interfered with the action of the school laws. Still, there is a gain in the receipts for schools, of 175, and of teachers, 18. The value of school-houses and sites, of school apparatus and school furniture, is also reported to have increased, though, out of New Orleans, there are said to be few school houses in good condition. Three normal schools, not under State control, have had over 200 pupils. In private schools, 22,306 scholars are reported, with about 1,000 under secondary training, 392 in preparatory schools of colleges, 232 in the colleges themselves, and 196 in professional schools.

Texas, with a rapidly increasing population, shows great inadequacy of educational provisions. An indebtedness of nearly half a million to the teachers is reported; there was also difficulty in obtaining school-houses, the law not authorizing the payment of rent, and not providing funds enough to build. The establishment of 3 normal schools is recommended, there being none at present. In 11 academies and seminaries, 2 business colleges, and 8 preparatory schools of colleges, 2,265 pupils were reported; in 8 colleges, 701 students; in 8 schools for superior instruction of females, 245 in studies equivalent to collegiate; and in 2 professional schools, 25 students of theology and medicine.

In Arkansas the public schools were prostrate for the year, awaiting action of the legislature for their revival. But in the normal department of the State Industrial University, 23 students were preparing to be teachers; in 3 schools for secondary training there were 258 students; in the preparatory department of the university and 2 colleges, 248; in collegiate classes, 119.

In Mississippi the opposition to the public school system is said to be steadily diminishing, the idea of popular education to be more and more favorably entertained, and the free schools to be now receiving very general support. The receipts of these schools were over $900,000 for the year; the number of schools, 3,846; the average attendance about one-third of the children of school age; the value of school property, $505,790.56. In 2 normal schools there were 300 students. Returns from 2 out of 8 schools for secondary training show 117 pupils; preparatory schools of colleges, 553. In 6 colleges there were 292 students; in 7 institutions for superior instruction of females, 789; and in one school of theology, 10.

Tennessee reports a receipt of $998,459.10 for public schools, more than half the school population enrolled in them, and more than one-third in average daily attendance; the number of teachers, 5,551, and their average salary, 33 per month. The city school systems appear to be working well, through extra aid received from the Peabody fund. Through the same means 10 teachers' institutes were held during the year, doing much towards training good school-teachers, there being yet no normal school under State direction. In 3 city high schools there were about 500 pupils; in 46 private schools, 4,866; in 4 business colleges,

554; in preparatory schools of colleges, 1,920; in 15 colleges, 699; and in 6 professional schools, 471.

Kentucky presents imperfect statistics, owing to the meager returns from local officers to the State superintendent; but enough appears to show that although, from want of funds her school term has been short, and the enrollment in schools proportionately less than in Tennessee, still, there has been a perceptible advance. Public sentiment is more in favor of free high schools; provision for the education of the colored population in them has at last been made, so far as the income from tax on the property of colored persons and any moneys that may be received from the United States will go; 141 new school-houses have been built; a more general organization of teachers' institutes has been effected; the establishment of a State normal school has been pretty well resolved upon; in 3 private normal schools, 2 colleges and 2 city training schools, about 300 persons have been preparing to teach; about 4,000 have received secondary training; about 1,000 appear in 12 colleges, not counting in the female colleges; and in 11 professional schools were 225 students of theology, 16 of law, and 616 of medicine.

West Virginia reports a receipt of $740,638.59 for public schools, an expenditure greater by $138,689.40 than in 1873; a school attendance 27,256 greater, 218 more school buildings, 357 pupils in 4 of the 7 normal schools, 834 in secondary schools, 414 in college studies, and 43 in theological.

It should be observed in general with reference to the Southern States, that much aid is received from other quarters. The Peabody fund has continued to extend its most efficient aid in the States designated for its benefaction.

GREAT LAKE AND NORTHERN MISSISSIPPI STATES.

A prominent educational feature in these States, with the exception of Ohio and Illinois, is their crowning of the free school system with State universities, to which graduates from the higher grades of free schools may be admitted without other examination than they have passed with approval in the schools.

Ohio reports a school population of 985,947; an enrollment in public schools of 707,943; an average attendance of 429,680; receipts, $8,300,594; expenditure for school buildings, $1,474,083. There are no State normal schools, but 10 under private or collegiate or city auspices report 2,120 pupils; high schools, 24,229 private academies, 5,151; preparatory schools, 4,771; business colleges, 2,845; 33 colleges, 2,441; 13 higher schools for women, 1,842; 2 scientific schools, 148; 12 schools of theology, 332; 2 law schools, 67; 11 medical schools, 1,177.

Michigan shows an enrollment in public schools of about 330,000 out of 436,694 of school age; an average attendance of 170,000; a sum of $4,094,776 received for school purposes, and $536,307 expended for school buildings. Among the signs of progress are better school buildings, improved school furniture, and increased pay to more fully educated teachers. The State normal school has had 329 pupils and the State university and 4 colleges have maintained normal classes. In private and parochial schools there have been some 20,000 pupils; in schools for secondary training, 8,286; in the State university and 6 colleges, 817 students; in the State agricultural college, 121; and in 6 professional schools, 826.

Indiana reports 489,044 pupils enrolled in public schools, only 2,010 less than the whole number between 6 and 16. The school fund reached $8,711,319; the school revenue, $2,211,328; the number of schools, 9,105; the number of teachers, 13,005; and 478 school-houses were built during the year. In 2 normal schools there were 1,026 pupils, and 19,083 in schools for secondary training. The State university and 15 colleges report 1,613 students; 9 institutions for superior instruction of females, 149; the State agricultural university, 19; 2 law schools, 58; 2 medical schools, 133.

Illinois reports an increase of $191,556 in her permanent school fund, but shows the effect of the financial troubles

of the year in a decrease of $1,365,850.80 in receipts for public schools, and of $1,393,759.80 in expenditures. Still, $1,009,960 were expended on school sites and buildings, and there was an increase in enrollment of 17,466, in average attendance of 31,830, and in the number of teachers of 354. The whole number of public schools was 11,649, with an average daily attendance of 383,334; the number of pay schools, 541, with an enrollment of 51,022. In the 2 State normal schools and others there were 1,800 normal pupils, and 11,386 in schools for secondary training, exclusive of high schools, in which there were probably as many more. In colleges there 2,835 students; in schools of science, 486; in schools of law, theology and medicine, 985.

Wisconsin raised for her 5,113 public schools, $2,667,050; employed in them, notwithstanding a somewhat less attendance, 429 more teachers than in 1873; increased her school sittings by 4,306; trained in her 3 State normal schools about 700 pupils; in secondary schools, 2,200; in college classes, 405; in professional schools, 140; and in special schools, 556.

Minnesota reports an increase of $122,592 in her permanent school fund, of $19,205 in the interest of this fund apportioned to the schools, of $368,478 in total receipts for school purposes, of $202,497 in expenditure for them, of 14,129 in school population, of 4,319 in attendance upon public schools, of 276 in the number both of schools and teachers, of 187 in the number of school houses, and of $1.48 to $4.46 in the monthly pay of teachers. The number of pupils in public schools is 128,902; in normal and other schools for secondary training, 4,920. The superintendent, reviewing the past ten years, says: "There has been a great improvement in all departments of our public schools, in the character of the schools, the qualifications of the mass of teachers, and the methods of instruction and school management."

Iowa reports an increase of $307,598.62 in receipts for public schools, and of $200,423.62 in expenditures. The increase in school population was 15,001; in the enrollment in public schools, 17,553; value of school property, $1,337,750. The normal departments of the university and Whittier college had 63 students; such secondary schools as were reported, 5,543; colleges, 1,127; professional schools, 414; 3 special schools, 284.

MISSOURI RIVER STATES.

The system here continued in 1874 the same as in the preceding year, a State superintendent of instruction with county superintendents under him, presiding over and supervising public schools in each State, while a State university, as in the last-named section of States, stood at the head of the free schools to receive their graduates, though with less definite arrangements in respect to their admission.

Missouri shows an increase of 2,537 in school population, of $72,198.41 in receipts for school purposes, and of $714,548.83 in permanent county school funds. But in other particulars there appears no change, except in St. Louis, where the advance is continuous and great. The normal schools (State, city, collegiate and independent) had 1,887 pupils; the secondary schools, including business colleges, 9,735; the university and colleges, 1,258 collegiate and 145 scientific students; professional schools, 844; 2 special schools, 246.

Kansas reports a decrease of $18,340.25 in receipts for public schools, but an increase of $7,282.19 in expenditure, of $79,744.42 in permanent school fund, of 410 in the number of school-houses, and of 1,020 in the number of teachers. In 4 normal schools, 1 of them for the colored race, there were 574 pupils; in secondary schools, 2,215; in collegiate classes, 415; in the institution for the blind, 40.

Nebraska increased her receipts for public schools from $901,190 in 1873 to $988,740 in 1874, and the expenditure for them from $751,904 to $1,004,957. The number of school-houses was increased by 378, the number of teachers by 513, and the numberof enrolled pupils by 9,846. The State normal school had 47

pupils, and, as far as far as can be gathered from returns received, there were 786 students in secondary schools, 67 in collegiate classes, and 2 in a professional school, with 53 in the State institute for the Deaf and Dumb.

STATES ON THE PACIFC SLOPE.

Nevada, in her third biennial report, shows improvement in almost every particular. The school funds have increasek from $104,000 to $250,000; the school population from 5,675 to 6,315; the school attendance from 77 to 84 per cent. More than $50,000 has been expended upon school-houses; 13 new districts have been formed; 39 more teachers employed; a preparatory school for the future university erected, and the few deaf and dumb trained in the school at Oakland, Cal.

The first biennial report from Oregon states that, notwithstanding great embarrassments, the public schools have enjoyed considerable prosperity, and have made commendable progress. The work of organization is going forward; the examination of teachers is being made more uniform; $46,608.96 was spent on school-houses in 1873-'74, against $4,352.45 the preceding year; and out of a school population of 40,898 there were 20,680 enrolled in schools a larger proportion than in several much older States. In her colleges were 796 preparatory students, 235 collegiate, and 14 medical.

California, with a population spread over a vast territory, but with several well-grown cities, reports 117,870 enrolled in schools out of 159,427 of school age. The increase of enrollment over 1873 was 20,189, about keeping pace with the growth of population. There was a decrease of $73,734.94 in the receipts for public schools and of $34,982.09 in expenditures. The State normal school reported 234 pupils; secondary schools, 3,077; the university and colleges, 682 preparatory and 752 collegiate, besides 131 in the agricultural department of the university, and 114 professional students.

THE TERRITORIES.

For the second time every Territory has been heard from, and the report is, on the whole, encouraging. In all, except Alaska, some school system is in operation, with a territorial superintendent of instruction, and generally county superintendents also, while in the newly settled ones the citizens seem to be manfully contending with the great difficulty of educating children in regions where wide, waste areas form the rule and fixed settlements the few exceptions.

The District of Columbia, compact and populous, led the list last year in enrollment of children in schools, and Colorado in the amount rsised for educational purposes. This year, Utah, vast in territory but scanty in population, reports 10 more than the District on her list of pupils in the public schools and 308 more in average daily attendance, while Colorado, rich as she is in mines, falls not only below her former self, but also below the District in school revenue.

The enrollment in the territorial schools is, as reported—though the returns are said to be in some instances imperfect—for Arizona, 343 out of 2,584 children of school age; for Colorado, 9,995 out of 13,309; for Dakota, 4,006 out of 6,412; for the District of Columbia, 17,839 out of 31,671; for Idaho, 2,030 out of 4,010; for Montana, 1,935 out of 3,758; for New Mexico, 5,420 (in all schools. 6,578) out of 23,000; for Utah, 17,859 out of 33,297; for Washington, 7,592 out of 11,937; for Wyoming, 1,000 out of 1,100. The returns from the Indian Territory are too meager to admit of a comparison of them with others, each Indian tribe there acting independently.

SCHOOL STATISTICS OF ONE HUNDRED AND TWENTY-SEVEN CITIES.

A summary is presented of the statistics of the public schools in 127 cities, with a population of 6,037,905. The summaries in the twenty different items reported for each city contain some most suggestive lessons. Some cities cannot tell the number of their school population; some have not counted their sittings, and do not know whether they are adequate to their necessities. The number enrolled in private schools can only be approximated. The statistics show that these cities contain 1,344,028 chil-

dren of school age, and 2,136 school buildings, having 621,498 sittings, or not quite half enough for the children entitled to attend school. This apparent deficiency is in part due to the fact that twenty-five cities are unable to tell their sittings. The amount expended in these cities for public schools for the year was $19,122,323, while the total receipts for the year were $19,150,514. Striking comparisons are furnished by the columns showing the legal school age, the number of days schools were taught, the tax for school purposes on assessed valuation, and the average expenses *per capita* of enrollment in public school, for (1) instruction and supervision, and for (2) incidental expenses.

CLASSIFICATION AND GRADING.

The Commissioner alludes to the discussion among leading educators of the country concerning the theory of classification and grading advocated by Superintendent Harris, of St. Louis, and practically instituted by him in the public school of that city. This system "discards one general epoch of transfer and reclassification at the close of the year, and adopts instead four or more partial transfers, so arranged as to accommodate a two-fold demand: first, that the ablest pupils shall not be kept back; secondly, that the ablest and highest paid teachers shall at all times have their full quota of pupils."

A number of city superintendents have taken part in the discussion of Mr. Harris's theory, some of them assuming an attitude decidedly hostile to the plan of frequent reclassification. Prominent among these are the superintendent of Columbus, Ohio; of Springfield, Mass.; and of New Bedford, Mass. Hon. E. E. White, of Ohio, in a paper read before the National Educational Association, August 4, 1874, made a strong defense of the position assumed by Mr. Harris. Extracts from this paper are given in the report.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Statistics are given of 124 normal schools, having 966 instructors and 24,405 students. Of these schools, 73 are supported by State appropriations. The largest appropriation for any one normal school for the year was for the Normal University of the State of Illinois—$28,987. Next to this is the appropriation for the State Normal School of New Jersey—$20,000. Each of the 6 State Normal Schools of New York received $18,000, and the Michigan State Normal School $17,500. The other appropriations range from $1,000 to $15,000. Pennsylvania claims the largest number of normal schools, reporting 11; Ohio, 10; New York, 9; and Illinois and Missouri 8 each.

In connection with the statistics showing the progress of normal training in the United States, the Commissioner presents an exhibit of the course of instruction, etc., in teachers' seminaries in Saxony. Attention is also invited to a statement of what is being done in German-speaking universities in the way of lectures on education, to promote improvement in the methods of instruction.

COMMERCIAL AND BUSINESS COLLEGES.

Statistics have been received of 126 institutions of this character, having 577 instructors and 25,892 students, an increase over the number reported last year of 14 institutions, 63 instructors, and 3,495 students. In the number of schools New York takes the lead, reporting 17; Illinois 16; Ohio 13; and the remainder are distributed among 24 States and 2 Territories.

KINDERGARTEN.

Information is given in a table of 55 of these schools, having 125 teachers and 1,636 pupils. Of the whole number of these gardens reported, Massachusetts claims 14 (6 of which are in Boston) and New York 10.

SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

The Report presents a summary of the statistics of 1,031 of this class of schools, having 5,466 instructors and 98,179 students. Of the whole number of schools, 195, with 13,592 pupils, are for boys; 275, with 20,458 pupils, are for girls; and 561, with 64,129 pupils, for both sexes. It is noticed that although 1,031 institutions, with 408 more teachers, are reported in

1874, as against 944 in 1873, there were 20,391 less students. The diminution of the number of students is probably attributable to the financial embarrassments of the year, which have, in many states, largely affected the attendance on private schools, of the academic class.

The Commissioner, alluding to the efforts of the Bureau to collect full statistics of secondary instruction, says: "At present there is a painful deficiency of information respecting secondary instruction in State and city systems. Some of the State reports make no especial mention of schools of this grade; and, of those that do, comparatively few indicate either how many of them are existent, how large a list of pupils is enrolled in them, what are the courses of study, or what proportion of the students follow out these courses to the close. Information of this sort has to be sought laboriopsly, and often almost in vain, through the reports of county superintendents, city boards of education, and the pages of the various school journals. It would be a great aid to better knowledge of our educational condition if high authorities in States and cities would embrace this matter of high school instruction, with full details, in each annual report. This information is essential, if we are to know precisely how we stand in the matter of preparation for the highest courses of instruction."

PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

The number of these schools reporting to the Bureau for 1874 is 91, with 697 instructors and 11,414 students. This is an increase over 1873 of 5 institutions and 7 instructors, but a decrease of 1,073 students. The number of students preparing for the classical course in college is 3,655; for the scientific course, 951.

SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION OF WOMEN.

The report embraces statistics of 209 of these schools, 4 more than in 1873. The number of instructors reported is 2,285, 165 more than in 1873; and the number of students, 23,445, a decrease of 1,168. Six thousand one hundred and ninety of the students were in the preparatory departments, 10,750 in the regular collegiate course, 1,093 in special or partial courses, and 138 in the post-graduate course.

UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES.

Statistics of 343 colleges and universities are given. The number of instructors reported is 3,783; the number of students 56,692. The number of institutions reported is greater by 20 than in 1873, the number of instructors by 677, and the attendance by 4,639. The number of students in preparatory classes was 28,529; number of unclassified students, 1,648; number of students in regular college classes, 26,515, of whom 15,598 were in the classical course, 4,664 in the scientific course, and 283 in post-graduate studies. The number of females in preparatory classes was 6,585; in collegiate classes, 2,787.

Of the 343 colleges, 300 report libraries, the aggregate number of volumes being 1,830,455; 158 report 406,144 volumes in society libraries; 152 report an increase in libraries during the year of 78,495 volumes. The value of grounds, buildings and apparatus reported by 303 colleges was $39,170,223; the amount of productive funds reported by 178 colleges, $28,080,309; the income from productive funds reported by 168 colleges, $1,801,890; the receipts from tuition fees for the last year in 208 colleges, $1,708,929; the amount of State appropriations received by 25 colleges, 611,676; and the aggregate amount of scholarship funds reported by 58 colleges, $1,999,338.

SUMMARY OF STATISTICS OF SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

The whole number of students reported in institutions for superior instruction is 48,855; of whom 16,515 are in colleges, 5,085 in schools of science, and 17,255 in schools for the superior instruction of women.

In connection with these statistics is presented a summary of students in clasical and scientific preparatory courses. The number preparing for a college course is 11,032; preparing for classical course in college: in academies, 5112, in preparatory schools, 3,655; preparing for scientific course in college: in academies

2,705, in preparatory schools 951; in preparatory departments of scientific schools 1,584—total number in preparatory courses, 25,039.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS.

In 1871 an effort was made to collect statistics of college entrance examinations. It turned out, however, that very few colleges kept a record of such facts; only 6 colleges were able to report with any degree of definiteness. This year the effort has been renewed with the following valuable results from 62 universities and colleges. It appears that the total number of candidates for these several institutions was 3,515; that the total number admitted without conditions was 2,015; that 486 were conditioned in Latin, 471 in Greek, 559 in mathematics, 227 in history and geography; and that, of those rejected, 53 failed in Latin, 62 in Greek, 144 in mathematics, 74 in history and geography, and 346 in two or more subjects of examination.

SCHOOLS OF SCIENCE.

The number of institutions and departments of this class, as reported to the Bureau, is 72; the number of instructors, 609; number of students, 7,244. The number of institutions reported in 1874 is greater by two, the number of instructors less by 140, and the attendance less by 1,606 than in 1873. The number of students in preparatory courses is 1,252; in regular courses, 4,037; in partial courses, 268; in post-graduate courses, 51.

The Commissioner alludes to an inquiry instituted by order of the House of Representatives into the condition and management of the college of agriculture and the mechanic arts, established under act of Congress July 1, 1862, and gives some facts furnished by the committee concerning the sales of land and land-scrip, and the investment of the proceeds in the different States. The following States are mentioned as having received noticeably large prices for their lands: Minnesota, $5.62 per acre; California, $5; Michigan, $3.25; Iowa, $2.27; Missouri, $1.84; Wisconsin, $1.25. The price for which land-scrip was sold ranged from 41½ cents per acre, in the case of Rhode Island, to 95 cents per acre, in the case of Virginia The interest has been paid in Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Mississippi and Virginia, while in Tennessee, by the failure of the State to pay the interest, a loss of $10,065.[illegible] was incurred. In North Carolina the bonds have yielded no income. In South Carolina the committee find that that the management of this trust has been equally reprehensible, and that in the States of Nebraska, Nevada and Oregon, the lands granted by the United States have not yet been sold, and consequently no investments have as yet been made. The colleges are generally free from debt.

The committee notices two important conclusions reached by the committee in their study of the facts with regard to the management of these colleges: First, the general incompleteness of the records kept; secondly, the need, not only of fidelity, but of financial skill in the administration of their endowments.

SIGNAL-SERVICE STATIONS AT AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES.

The Commissioner thinks "it is already apparent that the agricultural colleges could, with good reason, be made stations of the Signal-Service of the United States," and that such a connection would contribute greatly to the progress of the science of meteorology, and from it a greater benefit would accrue to the farming interest from the Signal-Service than is possible as it is at present organized.

SCHOOLS OF THEOLOGY.

The number of schools of theology, including theological departments, reporting to the Bureau in 1874 was 113, with 579 professors and 4,356 students. The number of institutions is 3 more than in 1873, the number of professors 6 more, and the attendance 518 greater.

These theological schools and departments are distributed among the denominations as follows: Roman Catholic, 18; Baptist, 16; Presbyterian, 15; Lutheran, 13; Protestant Episcopal, 12; Congregational, 8; Methodist Episcopal, 7; Reform, 3; United Presbyterian, 3; Christian, 2; Free Baptist, 2; Methodist, 2;

Universalist, 2; African Methodist Episcopal, (South,) Moravian, New Jerusalem, Union Evangelical, United Brethren, Unitarian and Unsectarian, 1 each—total, 113.

SCHOOLS OF LAW.

The Commissioner furnishes statistics of 38 schools of law, having 181 instructors and 2,585 students, 1 more school than in 1873, 23 more instructors, and 411 more students. The number of students who have received a degree in letters or science is 548. The number of graduates is 1874 was 917.

SCHOOLS OF MEDICINE.

The number of schools of medicine (including dentistry and pharmacy) appearing in the Report is 99, with 1,121 instructors and 9,095 students. The year shows an increase of 5 schools, a decrease of 27 instructors, and an increase of 414 students. The schools are classed as follows: 63 "regular," with 780 instructors and 6,888 students; 4 "eclectic," with 36 instructors and 303 students; 7 "homeopathic," with 122 instructors and 565 students; 11 "dental," with 133 instructors and 321 students; 14 "pharmaceutical," with 50 instructors and 908 students.

The commissioner remarks that, considering how closely these schools affect the life of every individual in the country, many of the details reported will excite surprise. Of the 9,095 students reported, only 783 are shown to have received a degree in letters or science. The total number of volumes for consultation in these schools is only 66,611. In contrast with these, the library of the Surgeon-General's Office at Washington has 37,000 volumes and 30,000 pamphlets.

While the total benefactions to education in the country for the past year were, so far as ascertained, $6,053,304, these several schools, which so directly affect humuan life, have received for the year only $308,406, and a total income of $24,219 from permanent funds, being almost entirely dependent upon their tuition fees, which amount to $520,593.

DEGREES CONFERRED.

Classification of degrees.—The number of degrees of all classes conferred in course was 8,859; honorary, 441. These were distributed as follows: In letters, 3,476 in course, 149 honorary; in science, 811 in course, 9 honorary; in philosophy, 95 in course, 15 honorary; in art, 4 in course, none honorary; in theology, degrees and diplomas in course, 630 honorary, 193; in medicine, 2,845 in course, 2 honorary; in law, 939 in course, 73 honorary.

Institutions and degrees.—The number of institutions of the several classes embraced in the summary, with the number of degrees conferred by each class, is as follows: Universities and colleges of the the liberal arts, 228; degrees conferred in course, 3,520; honoris causa, 441. Colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts, and schools of science, 35; degrees conferred in course, 362. Colleges, etc., for the superior instruction of women, 65; degrees conferred in course, 563; honoris causa, none. Total number of degrees conferred on women in institutions embraced in Tables VIII and IX of the Appendix, 860; honoris causa, none. Schools and departments of theology, 59; degrees and diplomas conferred in course, 630. Schools and departments of law, 32; degrees conferred in course, 939. Schools and departments of medicine and pharmacy, 81; degrees conferred in course, 2,845.

LIBRARIES.

In the Commissioner's Report for 1870, such facts as could be obtained respecting public libraries were published. The number of libraries reported was 152; in 1871, the number was 180; in 1872, 251; in 1873, 351. In the report for 1874, information is presented in regard to 340 libraries, embracing 1,091,590 volumes, 88,710 pamphlets, and 11,545 manuscripts, concerning which no detailed statistics have been previously given in the Reports, and 336 libraries which furnished detailed statistics in 1872 or 1873. The number of volumes in these libraries is 4,663,166; the number of pamphlets, 764,944; the increase in books during the last fiscal year was 299,767, and in pamphlets, 88,423.

The Commissioner alludes to a circular now in preparation, and soon to be issued by the Bureau, showing the historical development of libraries in the United States, their classification, management, growth and circulation, and presenting as full and accurate statistics of all public libraries as can be gathered. The Centennial Commission, recognizing the importance of library work as a part of the educational representation at the Centennial Exhibition, has designated it as a separate class.

RELATION OF ART TO EDUCATION.

A list of 27 art museums and art collections, of colleges, historical societies, etc., is given. Of these, 7 are in New York, 6 in Massachusetts, 2 each in Connecticut and Pennsylvania, and one each in Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, New Hampshire, Ohio, Rhode Island, Vermont, and the District of Columbia. The 7 in New York report an income the past year of $94,268; the 6 in Massachusetts, $16,137; 1 in Connecticut, $13,180; 1 in Illinois, $2,500; 1 in New Hampshire, $469; 1 in Ohio, $800; 1 in Vermont, $750; while the 1 in the District of Columbia reports the princely sum of $70,000.

These reports of income, however, are not in all cases reports of annual fixed incomes, but of exceptional contributions or gifts.

The Corcoran Art Gallery has a productive fund of $1,000,000; the Metropolitan Museum of New York reports an expenditure of over a quarter of a million in the purchase and care of its collections; the Yale School of the Fine Arts reports an endowment fund of $88,000; the National Academy of Design, New York, one of $50,000; Vassar College, one of $50,000.

The prominent features of several of these collections are noted in detail, and the Commissioner, alluding to the increase of interest in art collections and facilities of access to them, remarks that the world is rapidly learning that its possessions are valuable only as they can be used; and the controllers of museum and art collections are learning that their value to the public is in exact ratio to the facilities given to the public to see them intelligently. It is in their educational qualities that they are valuable."

As showing the very recent awakening and rapid growth of interest in art in this country, it is observed that, with the exception of the Boston Athæneum, founded as a library in 1807; the New York Historical Society, 1804; the Penn Historical Society, 1824; and the Redwood Library, 1730, none of which were founded as art museums, the 27 institutions reported have all been established since 1842, with the very important exceptions of the two great art academies, that of Philadelphia having been founded in 1805 and the present National Academy of New York in 1826. Of the 11 collections enumerated as connected with colleges, 5 were established since 1872, and 8 since January, 1864.

A list of 26 institutions affording art instruction is given. Of these, 10 are for the special training of artists. These art schools, exclusive of the Pennsylvania Academy and the Chicago schools, report 56 instructors and 594 pupils. This portion of the report closes with facts and statistics concerning some of the schools for art training in the United States.

SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB.

Forty of these schools are reported, with 275 instructors, of whom 37 are semi-mutes, and 4,900 pupils. The whole number who have received instruction in these institutions since their organization is 14,702. The State appropriations for the support of these schools during the past year amounted to $1,064,496, and the sum received from tuition fees was $127,946. The value of grounds, buildings, etc., is reported as $6,185,264.

SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND.

Twenty-seven States report 29 schools for the blind, having 525 instructors and other employes, and 1,942 pupils. The whole number of persons who have been under instruction in these schools since their opening is 6,684. There are, in the various institutions, 137 blind employes and workmen.

REFORM SCHOOLS.

Statistics are given of 56 of these schools. The number of commitments during the year was 9,846; the whole number since the schools were established, 110,622. The number of inmates at the time of reporting was 10,848. The cost of 54 of these institutions for the year was $1,541,799; the earnings of 49 of them, $305,127. The number of volumes reported in the libraries of 54 schools was 35,012.

The Commissioner reviews the special educational and reformatory features of several of these schools, giving prominence to what the history of a number of them has established as a fact, that "education is reformatory."

Statistics indicate that 75 per cent. of all the youth sent to these institutions have been reclaimed and restored to society; and they also show that the greatest success is achieved in efforts for the reformation of those under 14 years of age.

ORPHAN ASYLUMS, MISCELLANEOUS CHARITIES, ETC.

The Commissioner presents in a table statistics of 269 institutions, of which 156 are classed as orphan asylums, 21 as soldiers' and sailors' orphans' homes, 9 as infant asylums, 26 as industrial schools, and 57 as miscellaneous charities. The whole number of inmates of these institutions, as reported, is 26,360, under the supervision of 1,673 teachers and officers. The income for last year, as reported, was $2,725,616, and the expenditure, $2,160,079. These fall short of the real amounts, as several institutions failed to report receipts and expenditures.

The peculiar features of several of these institutions are presented, those in which industrial training is afforded being especially noted. These, however, are few in number, and the Commissioner, after referring to the large number of inatitutions which take children from the lowest classes, give them the rudiments of an education, teach them sewing, etc., says: "The great need now seems to be that these schools, which lay so good a foundation, shall be supplemented by special training schools, where instruction shall be given in various industries."

CRIME AND IGNORANCE.

The Commissioner's reports from year to year have contained statements concerning the relations between crime and ignorance. These Reports afford special facilities for collecting the educational facts respecting forty millions of people, and contrasting them with the records of crime. If these facts are kept, reported and generalized with sufficient accuracy and fullness, they will eventually furnish a safe basis for inference. Facts can alone settle the question whether education, used and applied in its largest sense, renders the industry of the hand and brain more productive, prevents pauperism, crime, and other ills, or affords a means of avoiding them.

Place is given to extracts from the Forty-Fifth Annual Report of the Inspector of the State Penitentiary for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania, of which the Commissioner says: "It is doubted if in any State, or indeed in any country, forty-four volumes containing the annual statistical tables of a penal institution, covering near a half a century, can, on examination, be regarded as more complete. Crime, crime-cause, social conditions, individual character, are ascertained, recorded, and treated as constitutional, chronic, or sporadic superinducements to that abnormal state in each individual convict, which produced or resulted in crime-punishment. It is believed no more interesting study can be given to the scientist than the results which are collected in these reports. They touch upon the limits of two generations of people, and exhibit in some degree the effects of that social condition called civilization, which has grown up and out of the means adopted for its advancement."

Allusion is also made to the labors of Dr. Elisha Harris and Mr. R. L. Dugdale in investigating the genealogy of a family of ignorant criminals and paupers, from which it is shown that the proportion of paupers in the family under consideration to the whole number in the family was seven times as great as the

proportion of paupers in the State, to the total population of the State, and similarly that the proportion of criminals in the family to the whole family was ten times as great as that of criminals in the State to the population of the State. Certain cases in this family of effectual reform to reputable life, occurring before the thirty-fifth year of age, are also noticed as of great significance, because the facts accord with the laws of mental development, under which the will and moral force are the last faculties to mature, and are therefore longer amenable to the process of regulation.

SCHOOLS FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

Statistics are presented of 9 schools for the instruction of feeble-minded youth, having 1,265 inmates, under the care of 312 instructors and other officers. The whole number of inmates since the opening of these institutions has been 3,403. The expenditure for seven of these schools during the year was $256,134. Three are located in Massachusetts, and 1 each in Connecticut, Illinois, Kentucky, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

EDUCATIONAL BENEFACTIONS IN 1874.

The Commissioner remarks that Table XXV should be studied in contrast with the corresponding table for 1873, an abstract of which is given. It should be observed that the Report embraces only those benefactions of which the office has authentic information. The total amount of money bestowed during the year by private individuals alone must considerably exceed what is here stated.

The whole amount of benefactions for educational purposes, of which the Bureau has received information, is $6,053,304, against $11,226,977 in 1873. Of the benefactions in 1874, universities and colleges received $1,845,354; schools of science, $481,804; schools of theology, $1,111,629, (the one point of increase, the amount in 1873 having been only $619,801;) schools of medicine, $44,531; institutions for the superior instruction of women, $241,420; preparatory schools, $723,040; institutions for secondary instruction, $272,281; libraries, $75,422; institutions for the deaf and dumb, $7,323; miscellaneous, $2,550,500.

EDUCATION AT THE CENTENNIAL.

This subject has necessarily required a large amount of attention in the office during the year. Many questions respecting it have arisen. The Commissioner has replied by communicating the action of the department of superintendence of the National Educational Association at a meeting held in January, 1874,* and by expressing a desire that the Centennial should be altogether a school of patriotism, illustrating to the American people and the rest of mankind the excellences of the American system of government by the people, and that education, as the primary cause of these excellences, should be fully brought out, at the same time inviting from all interested in education any suggestions they may have to offer, with a view to the adoption of some adequate and satisfactory plan for the presentation of these interests. In the Reports of this office for 1871, 1872 and 1873, attention was called to this subject.

The first important step will be the final revision of the classification by the Centennial Commission. When this has been published, it is hoped that the educators of the country will be ready to agree upon some uniform plan, and at the same time provide for individual representation by States and cities, and by separate institutions of learning. If no special provision is made by Congress to

*At this meeting, January 29 and 30, 1874, the committee on the Centennial made a report, which was accepted. This report contained the following recommendations:

(1) That each State and Territory be invited to prepare a representation of its educational condition for the Centennial.

(2) That each State and Territory also be invited to prepare a historical record of its educational progress, for the same purpose.

(3) That each city be invited to act with the State authorities in preparing such records, and that it present an exhibit of its own educational growth and condition.

(4) That each educational institution be invited to participate in the same way.

(5) That a census be taken in 1875. That the Commissioner of Education be requested, on behalf of the educators of this country, to correspond with the prominent educators of the world and invite their co-operation in the matter of the Centennial.

(6) That an international educational congress be held in connection with the Centennial.

enable this Bureau to participate in the preparation, the necessary correspondence cannot be carried on without great detriment to its regular work, and in that case the office can only attempt the presentation of such brief historical summaries as may come clearly in the line of its regular publications. These are fortunately made upon a method which may be indefinitely extended in any historical representation. They embrace: (1) school systems of States and Territories; (2) school statistics of cities; (3) statistics of normal schools; (4) commercial and business colleges; (5) schools for secondary instruction; (6) preparatory schools; (7) schools for the superior instruction of women; (8) universities and colleges; (9) schools of science; (10) schools of theology; (11) schools of law; (12) schools of medicine, of dentistry, and of pharmacy; (13) educational degrees conferred; (14) libraries; (15) museums of natural history; (16) museums of art; (17) schools for the education of the deaf and dumb; (18) for the education of the blind; (19) education in connection with orphan asylums; (20) in connection with reform schools; (21) schools for the feeble-minded; (22) educational benefactions; (23) educational publications; (24) Kindergarten; (25) art education, both industrial and in the fine arts; (26) educational associations and institutes; (27) improvements in school architecture and furniture; (28) education and its relation as increasing the skill of labor; (29) education as preventing pauperism; (30) as preventing crime; and (31) as related to health of mind and body. The facilities of the office can also be made useful in promoting the attendance of foreign educators and educational exhibitors. Should Congress, however, see fit to make a special appropriation, by which its means to aid in the representation of the education of the country will be increased, the office can (1) accomplish this plan, (2) become more useful in promoting the value of the educational exhibit on the part of foreign nations, and (3) serve to stimulate and supplement the representation to be made by each of the several States, cities and institutions. That there will be great need of it is already apparent. All interests of profit will naturally come forward of their own accord to represent themselves; but education can only be adequately represented, in its appliances, its relations, and its results, by the action of public authorities.

OTHER TOPICS OF THE REPORT.

The remainder of the Report includes the subjects of training schools for nurses, associations for educational work, zoological collections for educational purposes, the congressional bill for the appropriation of the net income of sales of public land for educational purposes, international exchange in educational work, and a statistical review of education in foreign countries.

DIVISION OF THE REPORT.

The appendix to the Report contains abstracts from the official reports of the school officers of States, Territories, and cities, with additional information from various sources, 524 pages; statistical tables relating to education in the United States, 390 pages; and an index of 21 pages—total including the report proper of the Commissioner, (152 pages,) 1,087 pages. The length of the report has made it necessary to omit the usual special articles.

A NEW grove of collossal redwood trees has been discovered in California, one of which eclipses all that have been discovered on the Pacific coast. Its circumference as high as a man can reach, standing and passing a tape line around, is only a few inches less than 150 feet, which is beyond the measurement of any tree in the Calaveras Grove. The height is estimated at 160 feet, and a part of the top lying on the ground is over 100 feet in length.

THE stupidest boy that ever successfully resisted the attempt to propel the etymology of the word baker into his intellectual system, will display more ingenuity and knowledge of strategy in robbing an apple orchard, than the colonel of a militia regiment.

DRAWING.

BY W. S. JOHNSON, NEW LISBON.

Of late drawing is receiving considerable attention as a school study. It seems to make but slow progress in our state, whatever may be the cause. It seems to me that the great majority of people misapprehend the province of drawing as a school study. To most people drawing is picture-making. Skill in the art is one of the accomplishments. They class it along with painting and music. In one sense the idea is correct; but considering drawing as a school study, it covers a far wider and grander field. Many attempts to teach picture-making have been made, but all have been failures as far as a great and lasting good to the majority of the pupils is considered.

Another class of persons, a far smaller class, look upon drawing as industrial. They take a very practical view of the subject. This is a better view than the "accomplishment" idea, but nevertheless a short-sighted one.

In a few lines I propose to give some thoughts on drawing, looking at the study in an entirely different light from either of the above. It is true that one of the results of drawing, properly taught, will be picture-making, but a result of comparatively little importance. Industrial drawing will have its place, but will be used as a means rather than an end.

Drawing is a disciplinary study, an important factor in the "new education." For centuries the languages have held their sway as disciplinary studies. The student who has mastered them is supposed to have reached the *ne plus ultra* of culture. These studies have their merits; but, that they are not sufficient for this day and age is abundantly proved by their results. They cannot be comprehended by the mind at at a time of life when discipline will tell the most. They must necessarily be taken up at a time of life when the bent of the mind is fixed. If they discipline the mind at all, it is not a symmetrical development; and the student is ever turning to the dead, dead past. It is true that the great majority of the great and learned of past ages have been fed on this kind of diet; but I believe it to be to be no less true that the world of thought has been checked in its progress by the conservative tendencies of a discipline wholly derived from a study of the *dead*. It is this conservativeness that blinds the eyes of many prominent educators of to-day to the superior merits of the "new education"—an education that deals with the present, the *living* world. That drawing is an important element in a thorough disciplinary course—a course of discipline which *symmetrically* develops the human being—I shall attempt to show.

Drawing can be brought to bear at the very budding of the child's mind. Drawing gives a kind of discipline that no other study can give. These two facts make it deserving of our closest attention. Drawing disciplines the mind, the eye, and the hand. In eye and hand culture drawing stands alone and without a rival. The discipline of the past has been of the mind alone. Who would care for a cultured mind imprisoned in a body with members which in the awkwardness of their movements approach *pseudopodae?* As it is by a proper use of the hands that so many of the human family put themselves into comfortable relations with the rest of the world, hand culture should not be slighted. But, as but slow progress can be made in disciplining the hand without a certain amount of eye culture, it must be plain that eye-culture should at all times be a little in advance. I shall therefore give eye-culture the first place in my paper. The discipline of the mind derived from drawing, as properly taught, is plainly a a consequence. Yet, it must be borne in mind that much that we call eye-culture is really mind-culture. We speak of judging by the eye; when the truth is the eye gathers the facts, and the "judging" is a mental operation. All the *real* eye-culture there is is *muscular* culture. Obviously the sight cannot be improved, since the eye is an optical instrument, having an efficiency in proportion to the

perfection of its construction; and, consequently, not susceptible of improvement by any means within the possessor. Further on I shall endeavor to show what I mean by *muscular* culture of the eye.

The following outline presents in small compass the results of a proper course of study in drawing; and the reader will do me a favor by referring to it frequently:

Mind Culture.	Observation. Originality of thought. Contrivance (mechanical construction. Æsthetic taste.
Eye Culture.	Judgments derived from motions of the eyeball, produced by the muscles called the *recti* and *obliqui*, as follows: Measurement,—judgment of distance, surface and volume. Direction of lines—vertical, horizontal and oblique. Form—judgment of symmetry, proportion and similarity.
Hand Culture.	Uniformity of muscular action. Precision of muscular action.

In the above outline mind culture is placed first, not because it is really first to be developed, but because of its relative importance.

The first lessons in drawing should be lessons in measurements by the eye. Before the hand can make much progress, it must be subject to the constant criticism of the eye; therefore the eye must first acquire a power of criticism. It will then be in order to first consider eye-culture.

A person can see but a single point distinctly without moving the eye. The reader, while looking at this page may be able to see several words at once. These words are seen distinctly enough to determine their general form; but they cannot be viewed critically. Let the reader give his attention to a single letter, and he will find that without moving the eye it is impossible to see distinctly the letter lying nearest, much less whole words. Carrying it still further, let him give his attention to a part of a letter, and he will find that without moving his eye in the least, it is impossible to see the rest of the letter. These experiments, with such others as one may choose to make, prove the assertion that but a single point can be seen distinctly without moving the eye. If you will examine the retina of the eye, you will find in its center a small yellow spot, the *macula lutea*, more abundantly supplied with sensitive cones than any other feature. This is the portion of the retina that forms a distinct image. When we wish to examine any part of an object or surface we move the eye so as to bring the *macula lutea* behind the corresponding part of the image. That there is but one extremely sensitive point on the retina is a wise provision of nature, for were it otherwise the organ of sight would be deprived of a greater part of its usefulness.

Measurement of a line by the eye consists in moving the eyeball so as to bring the sensitive *macula lutea* to bear on every part of the line from end to end. The movement of the eye is performed by muscles of the eyeball. The mind judges of the length of the line by comparing the amount of muscular action to the amount required to view some standard which has so often been thrown upon the retina as to make a lasting impression on the memory. To determine the relative length of two lines, we simply compare the amount of muscular action required in either case to bring the center of vision to bear on each line from one extremity to the other. When the mind can note the precise amount of muscular action required to view any line, the eye is cultured in linear measurement.

Some linear measurements are more readily made than others. From the fact that the eye has more freedom of motion in a horizontal direction, and because we are more accustomed to these movements, the measurement of horizontal lines is most readily accomplished. It will also be seen that comparative lengths of the *same* line can more readily be determined than lengths of *different* lines. Again, the movement of the eye in a horizontal direction is performed by *one* set of muscles—the external and internal *recti*.

From the foregoing facts I come to the conclusion that, in a proper course of study in drawing, the first step is to learn *to divide horizontal lines into equal parts.* The division of a line into two equal parts is the most simple measurement that can be made. The halves may then be divided into fourths in the same manner. The division of a line into thirds is far more difficult, and should not be attempted until the bisection of lines is readily accomplished.

The division of *vertical* lines into equal parts should next claim the attention. This measurement requires the use of but one set of muscles—the superior and the inferior *recti.* But at the outset we are met with a difficulty. A beginner, in attempting to bisect a vertical line will almost invariably make the lower division the longer! This can be accounted for only in one way: With but few exceptions all bodies in *stable equilibrium* have their greater mass below the center of altitude. It appears to be more natural to divide a body by taking into consideration its mass rather than its altitude. From long continued experience in observing objects in *stable equilibrium,* and knowing that objects in that position are at perfect rest, we fail to notice the difference in the size of lower and upper portions of the same object, unless the difference be great; but the moment the upper parts become the greater, we at once have our attention called to the fact; partly, I presume from the sense of insecurity which we feel when viewing an object in this position of *unstable equilibrium.*

This may be illustrated by the letter S. The upper part of an S is made somewhat smaller than the lower; but being in stable equilibrium, I presume that many of my readers never noticed the difference. We will now print a number of S's right end up:

S S S S S S S S

There is nothing singular in their appearance. We will now print a line wrong end up:

S S S S S S S S

The disproportion is magnified. Now when a beginner attempts to divide a vertical line into two equal parts, he will without intent give the lower portion the greater part of the line, and not be able to detect his error without he applies a fixed standard. This difficulty must be overcome. The accurate division of vertical lines, owing to the fact that the learner is disposed to try the law of proportion which belongs to objects, to lines which have not proportion, together with the fact that the eye moves less freely in a vertical direction, is far more difficult than the division of horizontal lines.

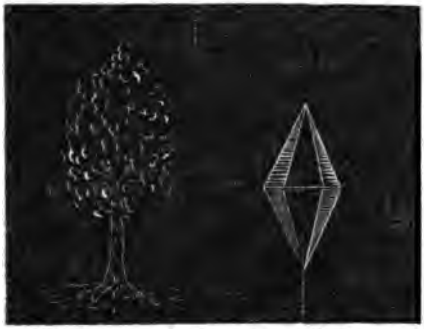
The division of oblique lines should next follow. The motion of the eye being produced by the *recti* and *obliqui.* therefore more complex in its nature.

No special drill need be given on surface and volume. It is evident that greater experience is needed than has so far been had by the pupil, before he can form any proper judgment of comparative surface or volume. I find that but little practice is required by the pupil to enable him to determine the direction of lines; that is, whether they be horizontal, oblique, or vertical. This may be accounted for in this manner: In his common, everyday life his eye is ever called upon to trace vertical and horizontal lines. The walls of buildings are vertical; the ascending axes of most plants are vertical. The ceilings and foundations of buildings are horizontal; the surface of standing water is horizontal. A constant tracing of these lines of the eye give him an experience that needs but little supplementary work in the schoolroom.

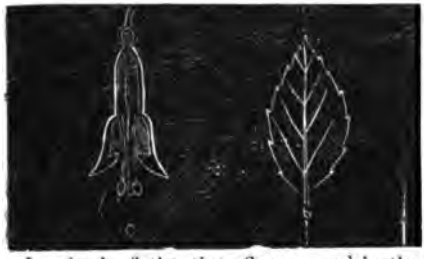
On the subject of form I am obliged to differ from many who teach drawing. The practice has been to give the pupils copies at the very outset of the course. In order to make anything like a creditable representation of the copy, the pupil must have a good idea of *similarity*—a conception too complex for a beginner. Furthermore the practice of furnishing copies to pupils cultivates the faculty of imitation, which should be avoided.

Symmetry is the first thing that should claim the attention in the study of form.

We find that in all natural growth, symmetry is the law of form.



This is true whether we watch the crystal as its particles take their places according to the laws of molecular attraction, or the forest tree as it throws out its branches through the agency of the same force.



In the leaf the tiny flower, and in the human form the same law of symmetry is trying to assert itself. I say *trying* to assert itself; for although symmetry is the law of growth, its perfection is seldom reached. Circumstances are always at war with growth. The prevailing winds, the inequality of light and heat, received by different parts, to some extent modify the form of the tree. Lack of nourishment and the depredations of insects deform the leaf and flower. The influences of climate, hardships and disease working since our father Adam was driven from the garden, have made the human form, which in its beauty is *perfectly* symmetrical, oft hideous and loathsome to behold.

(To be continued.)

Of ten infants destined for different vocations. I would prefer that the one who is to study through life should be least earned at the age of twelve.—*Tissot.*

LITERARY CLUBS.

BY A. F. NORTH, PEWAUKEE.

I doubt not it has been observed by many teachers that the time and labor necessarily devolved by pupils preparing to pass a creditable examination for teachers' certificates, leave them with very little inclination for any literary labor outside of their special studies, and that they graduate with very little of that general knowledge that marks the man or woman of culture.

In order to remedy this defect the boys and girls in our highest classes in the Pewaukee school, in company with many who have left school and are now engaged in teaching or other avocations, have organized, and for a number of years sustained a literary society, in which the usual exercises, such as debates, essays, readings, etc., are found.

In connexion they have established a circulating library of about two hundred volumes, to which they are continually making additions by means of the fees derived from the use of the books. Of course the library is open to all.

But the best feature in their work is that they have for a few seasons past secured a series of lectures of a very high order, which have been not only of great value to themselves, but a rare treat to such of our citizens as prize literary privileges.

Among the excellent lecturers they have had, I may mention the Rev. Samuel Fallows, late Superintendent of Public Instruction; subject: *A Talent for growth;* Rev. Myron Reed, Milwaukee,—*The Bliss of Ignorance;* Rev. Mr. Simmons, Kenosha,—*Dante's Inferno;* Hon. Edward Searing, Madison,—*Mohammed;* Robert Menzies, Milwaukee,—*Songs and Song Writers of Scotland.*

In our smaller villages a good deal can be done by such an institution as this, to provide agreeable and profitable entertainment for the young, and thus check the tendency to seek it in ways less favorable to moral and intellectual growth.

A little assistance from intelligent and

public-spirited friends outside, might lead to the indefinite multiplication of these centers of culture throughout the state, and if their experience is any way like ours, they will find the gentlemen lecturers most liberal in accommodating their charges to the incipient weakness of the societies.

THE TEACHER'S DREAM.

The following poem, by Prof. W. H. Venable, of Cincinnati, has received the most flattering commendation, the poet Longfellow himself speaking of it in terms of unqualified admiration. Mr. Venable has expressed in it a feeling that all teachers of the young must at one time or another have felt. They are fortunate if, like him, they could see in vision the result of their labors:

A weary teacher sat alone
  While twilight gathered on;
And not a sound was heard around—
  The boys and girls were gone.

The weary teacher sat alone,
  Unnerved and pale was he;
Bowed 'neath a yoke of care, he spoke
  In sad soliloquy:

"Another round, another round
  Of labor thrown away,—
Another chain of toil and pain
  Dragged through a tedious day.

"Of no avail is constant zeal,
  Love's sacrifice is loss,
The hopes of morn, so golden, turn,
  Each evening, into dross.

"I squander on a barren field
  My strength, my life, my all;
The seeds I sow will never grow,
  They perish where they fall."

He sighed, and low upon his hands
  His aching brow he prest;
And o'er his frame ere long there came
  A soothing sense of rest.

And then he lifted up his face,
  But started back aghast,—
The room by strange and sudden change
  Assumed proportions vast.

It seemed a Senate hall, and one
  Addressed a listening throng;
Each burning word each bosom stirred,
  Applause rose loud and long.

The 'wildered teacher thought he knew
  The speaker's voice and look,
"And for his name" said he, "the same
  Is in my record book.

The stately Senate hall dissolved,
  A church rose in its place,
Wherein there stood a man of God,
  Dispensing words of grace.

And though he spoke in solemn tone,
  And though his hair was gray,
The teachers' tho't was strangely wrought,
  "I whipped that boy to-day!"

The church, a phantasm, vanished soon:
  What saw the teacher then?
In classic gloom of alcoved room
  An author plied his pen.

"My idlest lad," the teacher said,
  Filled with a new surprise—
"Shall I behold *his* name enrolled
  Among the great and wise?"

The vision of a cottage home
  The teacher now descried
A mother's face illumed the place,
  Her influence sanctified.

"A miracle! a miracle!
  This matron well I know
Was but a wild and careless child,
  Not half an hour ago.

"And she to her children speaks
  Of duty's golden rule,
Her lips repeat, in accents sweet,
  My words to her at school."

The scene was changed again, and lo,
  The school-house rude and old;
Upon the wall did darkness fall,
  The evening air was cold.

"A dream!" the sleeper, waking, said,
  Then paced along the floor,
And, whistling slow and soft and low,
  He locked the school-house door.

And, walking home, his heart was full
  Of peace, and trust and love and praise,
And singing slow and soft and low,
  He murmured, "After many days."

OUR REAL LIFE.—Sculpture, painting, and poetry are in the main the vehicles of ideas. Each draws into its service all of the sensuous and æsthetic which it can use to enrich and beautify its representations. Each makes the scope of its work as wide as may be, but essentially the communication of thought from mind to mind is that which it really makes its aim. Music, on the contrary, is the language of emotion. If we will for a moment cast aside conventionalities of thought and feeling which obscure the sensational processes of our own existence from us, and direct close attention to the depths of our inner lives, we must see how ever-varying is the current of our emotional life. Elation and depression of feeling, variation in kind and intensity, follow each other without intermission. We do not regard our emotions with the same care and attention with which we note the processes of thought or the violations of will; and yet just in them is the secret of our inner lives. It is only as thought is translated into feel-

ing that it touches the springs of our happiness or misery. Our emotional lives form the birth-place of motives, and from them spring the deeds which stamp us for time and for eternity. This is our real life. Our thoughts, in the bosom of emotion as in an atmosphere, are tinged, though not absolutely determined, by its influence.

HORTICULTURE AND HOME.

[From a Paper by N. F. Lund, read before the Wis. Horticultural Society.]

Horticulture has been termed "the Fine Art of Agriculture." In expression of form, color, or showy magnificence, this is true, but it is more than this, and includes the "useful" as well as the "polite arts." Thus the garden of herbs and vegetables, while giving no expression of the beautiful, represents the useful, in horticulture. The first bearing shrub, or tree, or vine represents the "useful and polite arts" combined, while the flowering shrub, the lawn and flower-border represents "decorative or polite art."

Poetry is not all written in verse, but much of it in prose, and a vast deal is never written or spoken, but only felt and lived, and there are thousands of nature's poets who never wrote a stanza. All pictures are not from the painter's brush, but she who selects, combines and harmonizes in garden border or boquet, the varied shades and colors of natural flowers, may be as truly an artist, and the colors with she paints as truly nature's as he who mingles pigment with oil on his pallet, and spreads them on the canvas. The line of beauty is not confined to sculpture. True art may be shown in the winding path of garden or lawn; in the grouping and pruning of trees; in training the shrub or the curving of the vine. Thus we may claim in the broadest sense that horticulture is "art in nature," and its office is to surround home with the useful and beautiful.

A late English traveler writes admiringly of an American home which he found in his journeyings among us: Hepworth Dixon, in his "New America," sketches a most charming pair of young Americans whom he had met conquering a home from very scanty materials, and amidst the most discouraging difficulties. The man is a squatter on a patch of forest land, which he has redeemed from loneliness. Yet all is comfort, without a sign of poverty. He says: "Walk up this garden-way, through these neat little beds of fruit-trees, herbs and flowers. This path might lead to a gentleman's villa, for the road is wide and swept, and neither sink nor cess-pool, as in Europe, offends the eye. Things appear to have fallen in their proper places. The shed is rough, strong and snug—a rose, a japonica and a Virginia creeper climbing around the door. Inside, the house is so scrupulously clean that you might eat your lunch as comfortably off its bare planks as you could from the shining tiles of a Dutch floor. Something like an air of gentle life is about you; in the little parlor there are a vase of flowers, a print and a bust of Washington.

"You see at one glance that there is a bright and wholesome woman in the house. Annie Smith is the type of a class of women found in America, and some parts of England, but nowhere else. In station she is little above a peasant; in feeling she is little below a lady. She has a thousand tasks to perform; to light her fires; to wash and dress her children; to scrub her floor; to feed her pigs and cows; to fetch in herbs and fruits; to dress and cook the dinners; to scour and polish her pails and pans; to churn her butter and press her cheese, and make and mend the clothes. But she laughs and sings through these daily toils with such an easy compliance, that her work seems like pleasure, and her care like pastime. She is neatly dressed, beyond, what an Englishman might think her station in life requires, were it not that she wears her clothes with a perfect grace."

Our author very naturally retains his English ideas in giving the station in life of Annie Smith. But we call her more than "peasant," and more than "lady"—a true American woman; a mother whose children will be a blessing

to her, and will even bless her, and whose memories, when they have left their home, will often lead them up that garden-way, past the rose, the japonica, the Virginia creeper climbing around the door, into the parlor, with its vase of flowers, its print, and bust of Washington. Such mothers are the "angels of the covenant" that our American homes shall be kept pure and beautiful.

STATE INTERFERENCE.

We are asked, in view of our recent comments on state interference, whether we do not believe the education of the people to be a great national advantage, and, this being true, whether it is not incumbent upon the state to exact of every citizen the education of his children.

We hope we have just as high an estimate of the importance of general education as that of the most zealous believer in compulsory attendance at schools. But are we to understand that, because a thing is of indisputable public advantage, therefore it is the business of the state to employ its power and its resources to bring it about? If this is the logic of our questioner, let us look into it a little and see what it means.

There can be no doubt that religious training transcends in importance everything else. Not only is pious and moral living of the first consideration in regard to the welfare of people here, but also in regard to their welfare in the great unknown beyond this "bank and shoal of time." If because a thing is of universal importance government is entitled to interfere for its promotion, then the state must be permitted to enforce religious faith and pious living. Congress should under this view found churches even before it establishes schools.

Cleanliness is next to godliness. The moral and physical welfare of the whole people largely depends upon their habits of cleanliness and order. Foulness is not only an injury to him who indulges in it, but, inasmuch as it breeds sickness, and is the fruitful cause of epidemics, whoever is guilty endangers the life and health of all others. Clearly, then, as cleanliness intimately concerns the safety of all, the state may interfere to enforce it—not merely by punishing those who throw filth into the streets, or compelling those who live in close dens to undergo fumigation—which the state now attempts—but by dictating how often we shall bathe, and compelling everyone to wear a clean shirt. Under this rule the wretches in our streets, so foul with rags and filth, would disappear; but whether we are to submit to a general supervisory regulation as to our dress and personal habits, even to serve so excellent a consummation as this, may very well be questioned.

Temperance in both eating and drinking is indispensable to the general welfare. We know there are prohibition laws in some places in regard to the sale of liquor; but if we admit the principle that the public or general nature of a desired end sanctions the interposition of government, then the state may take upon itself not only to regulate the sale of liquor, but to restrict excesses among the people in eating and drinking.

Extravagance is another tremendous evil—an evil to those who indulge in it, and to the whole people as an example of waste and self-indulgence. It is no new notion in the philosophy of government that expenditure in apparel and display in jewels or other ornaments are matters legitimately within the control of the state.

Where shall we stop? It is not easy, indeed, to find a limit to the duties of government, if we concede that, because a consummation is devoutly to be wished, therefore the power of the state should be stretched forth to enforce it.

As to public education by the state, there are, it is true, a good many reasons to be urged in its defense. But no government can be in advance of its time in this particular. A general system of public education is only possible when the public sentiment is ripe for it; and when this is the case this public sentiment would be tolerably sure in good time to accomplish unaided all that the state would fain perform.—*Appleton's Journal.*

REVIEWS, EXAMINATIONS AND PROMOTIONS.

It is never to be forgotten that a city school of six or eight or ten hundred children cannot be so easily and simply conducted as a country school of forty or fifty pupils. On the other hand, it is equally important to remember that the multiplication of machinery is not in itself a mark of excellence; that the greatest attainable simplicity is just as desirable in a large school as in a small. Machinery is only means to an end. Everything which tends to exalt the machinery above the work which it produces is wrong, and all such machinery is not only useless to the pupils, but is a needless expense to the community which sustains the schools.

It seems to me that our whole system of reviews and examinations in school is burdensomely cumbrous and extravagantly expensive. I may assume that the memory of our own school days is fresh in all our minds. We can very well recall the interest we took in some studies, the lack of interest we felt in others. I doubt not our experience is almost universally the same. The first breaking of ground was delightful. We took each lesson each day with fresh interest. But when the book was finished and the two or three weeks of review came, it was all a drag. Neither teacher nor pupils had the stimulus of novelty. I would abolish the whole system of reviews. The very fact that they are without interest is a strong indication that they are without benefit. But without a review how can the pupil pass his examination and be promoted? I would abolish the examination, too. No one whose attention has not been called to it, can guess the burden which a close and careful investigation of the hundreds of thousands of annual, semi-annual and tri-annual examination papers in the grammar schools and high schools imposes upon the teachers. It is a wholly dry, uninteresting and exasperating work, and it is equivalent to the employment of a regiment of extra teacher-force. It is no part of the natural duty of a teacher, and I cannot see that it is productive of the least good. The pupil's standing for the next term or the next year is determined by it. But the teacher knows beforehand perfectly well what the pupil's standing ought to be; and if he wants to formulate that standing, to prevent the possibility of its being decided by the pique or partiality of the teacher, to have something to show the parent as a reason for his son's promotion or degradation, there is the daily record of his daily recitation and behavior—a standard just as statistical and fixed and far more trustworthy.

Multiplication is the very best review of addition. Division is the very best review of subtraction. Algebra is the proper review of arithmetic, and rhetoric and logic are the best reviews of grammar. The cram of a three weeks' review preparatory to examination, has no more tendency to fashion facts in the mind than the building up of a new science on the foundations of the old. Every day's lessons should be thoroughly learned and exactly recorded. That record at the end of the term should decide the pupil's rank for the next term. If he has studied faithfully and mastered fairly, he has derived all the good necessary from the pursuit. A two or three weeks' cursory ramble over the old ways, which have lost their novelty, will but fatigue and bore him, to little purpose. If he have been idle and unfaithful, he will not be likely to recover much ground in two weeks. Let him feel that it is a minute daily fidelity that must do his work, and not a lazy, careless lounging for ten weeks, to be made up by a spasmodic spring at the end. This is neither scholarly nor business-like.

If his daily record gives him the requisite percentage for promotion, he is promoted. If not, he remains where he is. But the faithful and studious, though necessarily somewhat flagging, not to say jaded pupils, are not stimulated by the fictitious interest of a test examination to tread over again a path from which their feet have already beaten out the greenness and their hands have plucked the flowers.—GAIL HAMILTON, *in the Independent.*

THE SCHOOLMASTER'S STORY.

When I taught a district school, said he, I adopted as a principle to give as few rules to my scholars as possible. I had, however, one standing rule, which was: "Strive under all circumstances to do right," and the text of right under all circumstances was the golden rule: All things whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them."

If an offense was committed, it was my invariable practice to ask, "Was it right?" "Was it as you would be done by?"

All my experience and observation have convinced me that no act of a pupil ought to be regarded as an offense, unless it be such when measured by the standard of the golden rule. During the last year of my teaching, the only tests I ever applied to an act of which it was necessary to judge, were those of the above questions. By this course I gained many important advantages.

In the first place the plea, "You have not made any rule against it," which for a long time was a terrible burden to me, lost all its power.

In the second place, by keeping constantly before the scholars as a standard of action the single text of right and wrong, as one which they were to apply to themselves, I was enabled to cultivate in them a deep feeling of personal responsibility.

In the third place, I got a stronger hold on their feelings, and acquired a new power of cultivating and directing them.

In the fourth place, I had the satisfaction of seeing them become more truthful, honest, trustworthy and manly in their intercourse with me, with their friends and with one another.

Once, however, I was sadly puzzled by an application of the principle by one of my scholars. George Jones was a large boy, who, partly through a false feeling of honor, and partly from a feeling of stubbornness, refused to give me some information. The circumstances were these:

A scholar had played some trick which interrupted the exercises. As was my custom, I called on the one who had done the mischief to come forward. As no one started, I repeated the request, but with no success. Finding that the culprit would not confess his guilt. I asked George who committed the offense.

"I did not do it," was the reply.

"But, do you know who did?"

"Yes, sir."

"Who was it?"

"I do not wish to tell."

"But you must tell. It is my duty to ask, and yours to answer me."

"I cannot do it," said George, firmly.

"Then you must stop with me after school."

He stopped as requested, but nothing which I could urge would induce him to reveal anything. At last, out of patience with what I believed to be the obstinacy of the boy, I said:

"Well George, I have borne with you as long as I can, and you must either tell me or be punished."

"With a triumphant look, as though conscious that he had the better of me by an application of my favorite rule. he replied:

"I can't tell you because it would not be right. The boy would not like to have me tell of him, and I'll do as I would be done by."

A few years earlier I should have deemed a reply thus given me an insult, and should have resented it accordingly; but experience and reflection had taught me the folly of this, and one of the most important applications of my oft-quoted rule was to judge of the natures of others as I would have them judge of mine. Yet for the moment I was staggered. His plea was plausible. He might be honest in making it. I did not see in what respect it was fallacious. I felt that it would not do to retreat from my position and suffer the offender to escape; and yet that I should do a great injustice by compelling a boy to do a thing if he really believed it to be wrong.

After a little pause I said, "Well, George, I do not wish you to do anything

that is wrong, or which conflicts with your golden rule. We will leave this for to-night, and perhaps you will alter your mind before to-morrow."

I saw him privately before school, and found him more firm in his refusal than ever. After the devotional exercises of the morning, I began to question the scholars, as was my wont, on the various points of duty, and gradually led the conversation to the golden rule.

"Who," I asked, "are the persons to whom, as the members of this school, you ought to do as you would be done by? Your parents, who support and send you here; your school-mates, who are engaged in the same work with yourselves; the citizens of the town who, by taxing themselves, raise money to pay the expenses of this school; the school committee, who take so great an interest in your welfare; your teacher; or the scholar who carelessly or willfully commits some offense against good order?"

A hearty "Yes" was responded to every question except the last, at which they were silent.

Then, addressing George, I said:

"Yesterday I asked you who had committed a certain offense. You refused to tell me because you thought it would not be doing as you would be done by. I now wish you to reconsider the subject. On one side are your parents, your school mates, the citizens of this town, the school committee and your teacher, all deeply interested in everything affecting the prosperity of the school. On the other side is the boy who by this act has shown himself ready to injure all these. To which party will you do as you would be done by?"

After a moment's pause he said:

"To the first. It was William Brown who did it."

My triumph, or rather the triumph of principle, was complete; and the lesson was as deeply felt by the other members of the school as by him for whom it was specially designed.—*Penn. School Journal.*

THE "dearest spot on earth" is the store that don't advertise!

RECITATION.

The Wisconsin JOURNAL OF EDUCATION quotes, apparently with approbation, an article from the Indiana *School Journal*, entitled "A Model Recitation." We subjoin a few sentences, enough to fairly represent the idea of the writer:

"A model recitation is one in which the pupil rises promptly when called upon, stands erect, begins the recitation at the beginning, proceeds according to a given plan, and closes when the conclusion is systematically reached. The model teacher makes his pupils do most of the talking during recitations. He but seldom interrupts a pupil while reciting, his questions and suggestions usually coming at the close of the recitation. The plan suggested does not imply that a recitation is to be made in stereotyped phrases, or by the repetition of meaningless forms, but it does imply that it shall be conducted according to a logical plan, so that the pupil may know where to begin, how to proceed, and above all, know when he has reached a conclusion."

This is a terse and plausible statement of a favorite theory, which is now widely held among educators. The theory, however, appears to us one-sided and defective. It raises the question: Is recitation an end, or a means to an end? If the former, then is it not lamentable that the pupil cannot continue at school all his life? For just as he has learned to be a *model reciter*, he quits forever the school house and the recitation room, and goes out into the world where he cannot enter upon each new scene and round of duty like a drilled performer, knowing just "where to begin, how to proceed, and where to end;" but must adapt himself to ever varying circumstances, and work out for himself the very best methods and results that he can out of the means placed at his disposal.

Now, how shall the teacher best prepare his pupils for the part that shall afterwards be required of them? Shall he say to them: The character and reputation of my school depend upon the glibness and readiness with which you recite,

so we will set before us as the highest end to be pursued, the attainment of a model recitation,—the power of delivering in the most flowing and brilliant manner, that which you have previously absorbed either from the text book or from your instructor. Or shall he say to them: We come together as investigators. There are fields of knowledge to be explored. There is a mental discipline to be acquired. There are ever new problems to be solved, new phases of difficulty to be met. It is not my business to smooth these all out of your way, but rather to assail them with you, and to teach you how they may be overcome; even to spring new difficulties upon you at unexpected moments, that all your resources may be developed. In doing this, it is in vain to expect that our daily work can be brought under any rigid routine; nor would this be a desirable consummation, if attainable. Our recitation shall not be a form, but a reality; not an exercise in declamation, but an encounter of mind with mind. You shall have full opportunity to state what you have acquired by previous study, clearly, connectedly, copiously, but I cannot promise you that you shall be entirely uninterrupted in any mere parrot-like performance.

To our mind, there is no hesitation as to the choice between these two methods. The one who takes the latter, though he may be the less pretentious, is certainly the truer teacher. We do not unervalue the importance of a good *style* of recitation. The power of expression is one of the most important to be developed, but there are others which should not be made subordinate to this. What seems to us especially preposterous in the whole scheme is the uniformity of recitation which is inculcated, the prescribed order and plan which, when once acquired, will make the recitation hereafter run itself. So that the model teacher, with his properly drilled scholars, has simply to wind them up and set them going, and then turning to the admiring spectators, say, "See the pretty machine that I have constructed; stand by and listen to its noise, but be careful not to interrupt it until it has entirely run out."

The excellence of a machine is not in the smmyetry of its parts or in the music of its hum, but in the character and quantity of the work it turns out.—W. L. R., *in the Carroll (Waukesha) Echo.*

[The criticisms are just, but we think the matter may be sufficiently reconciled by supposing that the writer in the *Indiana School Journal* had in mind a "model recitation" as something to be reached, not the first day nor the second, but we will say by the end of the senior year in college. Is it not just possible that knowledge and mental discipline may become hobbies to the neglect of expression? In fact, how does anybody know that there is any clear knowledge or symmetrical discipline about the scholar's cranium, unless he can make it apparent by telling clearly what he knows? We have heard a dozen seniors in college, just before graduation, make such a miserable bungle in undertaking to recite, that it was really painful to listen to them. It is but fair to add that they were the so-called "scientifics." If they knew anything about the subject in hand they were not able to make it apparent. The "classicals" did well. Some of them gave almost a "model recitation." We really think *that* is one of the "ends" of school discipline, and have no doubt W. L. R. thinks so too. In fact he says so.—P.]

WHAT a dreadful place a school-house must be, and what shocking things happen there, if the talk of school-children is to be relied upon! Yesterday noon I heard a dozen of them speaking about the various incidents of the day. It was impossible to catch all they said, as three or four talked at once; but I managed to learn these startling facts:

Nelly Jones coughed fit to *split her sides.*

Kitty Carson nearly *died of laughing.*

That Lawrence boy actually *boiled over with* rage.

The teacher's eyes *shot fire.*

Nelly Murray recited *loud enough to take the roof off the house.*

Robby Fitz's eyes *grew as big as saucers.*

Tommy Hudson almost *ran his feet off.*

Susie Jennins *thought she'd burst.*

Ellen Walters *broke down completely.*

And yet it was an ordinary school-day.
—*St. Nicholas.*

THE BEST ROUTE TO THE POLE.—The best route for polar exploration is the one that has been so unanimously advocated by all arctic authorities, both of our own and other countries, and the one that is to be adopted by the expedition about to leave our shores. There are many reasons why the route *via* Smith Sound is superior to and more advantageous for polar exploration than any other. We know that the United States exploring ship Polaris succeeded by this route in reaching a very high northern latitude—in fact, the highest latitude that a ship has ever attained, and that in a remarkably short space of time and with perfect ease. The shores of this narrow sound are teeming with animal life. In Dr. Hayes's expedition upwards of two hundred reindeer were shot during the winter, walrus and seals were abundant, and there were quantities of ducks and little auks in the summer. Where the Polaris wintered herds of musk-oxen found pasture, rabbits abounded, and large flocks of birds came northward in the summer months. This in itself is of the utmost importance, as with well-organized hunting parties, such as will be formed on board our exploring-ships, the crews will be supplied with fresh meat. The Smith Sound route is the best adapted for exploration by sledges, and in case of mishap or any unforeseen accident befalling the ships, it would be simply a matter of time for the ship's companies to travel south and reach the Danish settlements, or one of the Scotch whalers that annually frequent Baffin's Bay. The importance of reaching in the ships a high latitude, lies in the consideration that every ten miles made good in the ship toward the north, is two days' sledge-traveling saved.—*Popular Science Monthly.*

THE Boston school committee have passed an order that, at the beginning of the next school year, four public schools for Kindergarten instruction shall be established there, to admit children at the age of three years, and to continue the course of instruction for four years, with a Kindergarten teacher for each school, and the necessary apparatus.

LIGHT WANTED.

The JOURNAL has numerous readers who have given language a good deal of study. Many of them are excellent grammarians, and will be ready to parse the italicized verbs in the following sentences. Let us hear them:

1. *Come* we that love the Lord,
   And *let* our joys *be known;*
   Join in a song with sweet accord
   And thus *surround* the throne.

2. Here do I chose, and *thrive* I as I may!

3. *Know* all men by these presents.

4. HE *go!* no, *go* I!

There are two questions. 1. Is there in the English language a first or third person in the singular or plural of the imperative mode? 2. Is the infinitive ever found, pure and simple, after nouns or pronouns in the nominative?

A. B. C.

THE office of the teacher is not to reform, but to form. One former is worth a thousand reformers. A reformed man is never as good as one that was formed right at first. Give an army of conscientious, trained teachers to mould the characters of the children of the present, and there will be little work for reformers among the men of the future.

SUGGESTIONS TO PUBLIC SPEAKERS.—Observe either to draw your pen entirely through or to alter any passage which you find it difficult to commit. A thing is easily remembered which is striking, and retained which is sticking; and what does not impress your own mind in these ways, and therefore is committed with difficulty, you may be sure won't tell on the minds of your hearers. Deal in pure, pithy Saxon. Never use a word with Greek or Latin or French root, if you can find one with the same meaning in your mother-tongue. Use as few adjectives as possible; they load and cumber the truth. Mind "the three P's." In every discourse the speaker should aim at Proving, Painting, and Persuading; in other words, addressing the Reason, the Fancy, and the Heart.

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

POWERS OF A DISTRICT.

Q. Can the district fix the time for school to commence?

A. The district can merely determine the length of the term or terms. It may express a wish that school begin by a certain time, but that must be left to the board, and will naturally be governed by their ability to engage suitable teachers in time.

Q. The district voted to have a male teacher who had "taught three or four terms," but the board hired one who had not taught before. Was that legal?

A. The last part of the vote was not binding on the board. They were only obliged to hire a male teacher.

Q. We held our annual meeting, according to notice posted up, at one instead of seven o'clock P. M., elected a clerk; voted taxes, etc. Can the proceedings be considered legal?

A. They cannot, unless the hour was changed at the previous annunl meeting. You had better have a clerk appointed and hold a special meeting and transact the other business over again.

ELECTIONS—LADIES VOTING.

Q. Must not an election of district officers be declared, in order to be consummated?

A. It should be; but if the election is *viva voce*, and is evidently carried and so understood, and the person elected goes on and acts, the omission to make the usual declaration would not be a sufficient ground for calling the election in question afterwards.

Q. A man was elected clerk in our district who had not been in the state a year. Can he hold the office?

A. If his election was declared and recorded, and he entered upon the duties of his office, he will hold it until the election is called in question and set aside, by legal process, on *proof* that he was not eligible.

Q. At our annual meeting several ladies voted on the election of clerk, voting for one of their own number, who was elected. Was the election legal?

A. "That depends." If she obtained a majority of votes only by counting those cast by the ladies, she was not legally elected. If she had a majority without them, their illegal votes do not make her election invalid.

Q. In our district ladies were elected clerk and treasurer by the help of ladies' votes. They have hired a teacher, and ignore me, as director. Can they hold their offices under these circumstances, or should others be appointed?

A. Having got the offices, they will hold them until it is shown, on legal investigation, that they were elected illegally. It is not surprising that some of your ladies came to vote. They thought probably that if some could be elected the rest could help elect. It is no new thing for a law to be inconsistent in its provisions.

DISTRICT OFFICERS.

Q. If the bondsman of a district treasurer is elected clerk, does that render his bond invalid or insufficient?

A. Not if it had been duly approved; but either the clerk or director may now require a new bondsman.

Q. If a treasurer going out of office refuses to give up money, books and papers in his hands, what can be done?

A. As to the money, see the statute quoted at the end of section 38 of School Code, p. 60; as to books and papers, see chapter 156, Rev. Stat., Section 2.

BOARD MEETINGS—THE BOARD.

Q. At our annual meeting one of the board, after the adjournment, announced a meeting of the board to be held in two weeks. Was that sufficient notice?

A. No, a board meeting must be called as provided in Sec. 46. If the board had all met, however, at the time mentioned, it would have been lawful to transact business, under Chap. 97, laws of 1875.

Q. Is a majority of the board sufficient to adopt a list of text-books?

A. A meeting of the board having been duly called, a majority can carry any question, except where the law pro-

vides otherwise, as in the proviso attached to section 48.

PERSONAL INTEREST.

Q. When may a supervisor be regarded as so far "interested" that he ought not to act on the alteration of a school district?

A. Residing or owning property in the district are the usual grounds of personal interest. A supervisor is not legally disqualified for acting, in such a case, but it is well usually to leave it to the other two, if they are agreed.

Q. Can a clerk make repairs, etc., and draw orders to pay himself?

A. This is improper. A school officer should avoid all appearance and suspicion of profiting pecuniarily by such questionable acts. The spirit of the decision (25 Wis., 551,) which declared it illegal for a director to take the contract to build a school-house, is also against all transactions of a similar nature.

TAXES.

Q. In a joint district, can tax be levied, 3·5 to be paid in one town and 2·5 in the other?

A. The tax must be assessed according to the valuation of property, and in no other way. If the valuation is unequal, in the two towns, the assessors should first equalize, as provided in Section 75.

REMOVAL OF TEACHER.

Q. Can a district, by vote, remove a teacher?

A. No, if a teacher is discharged it must be done by the board. If the county superintendent annuls a teacher's certificate, that of course disqualifies him to teach longer in a public school.

TEACHER'S CONTRACT.

Q. After a term is half out, on a contract requiring 22 days, and excluding Saturdays, can the contract be altered?

A. Yes, by the mutual consent of the contracting parties.

Q. Suppose the contract, when drawn, says nothing as to the number of days, can that be inserted, say the next day?

A. Yes, by mutual agreement, as above stated.

STATE CERTIFICATES.

Q. If a candidate fails to receive a life certificate, will he be entitled to one for five years? What is the standard for each?

A. He would not get one for five years unless he passed on the studies required. The standard is not invariable from year to year. It may be regarded as about 70 per cent. for the lower grade; 75 for the higher.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT.

Q. Can a county superintendent demand pay for private examinations?

A. The law gives him no such right.

Q. Can he refuse such examinations, if sufficient cause can be shown for non-attendance upon the public examinations?

A. He must be the judge whether to grant them or not. If issue was taken with him for refusal, he would not be justified in protracted or in arbitrary and unreasonable refusal, but the courts would naturally give him the benefit of any doubt.

Q. Can a superintendent claim an office and fuel from the county, or, if he furnishes them himself, can he claim compensation?

A. Not by any provision of law. Only stationery, postage and printing are provided for. If there is a suitable room in the county buildings, and the county board give it to him, and warm it for him, it is not likely any tax payer will complain, if the superintendent is an efficient and useful officer.

Q. If a person is elected county superintendent while teaching out of the county, can he legally remain out of the county a month and finish his school, if he "qualifies" according to law?

A. The law certainly does not contemplate that a person chosen will accept an office by qualifying for it, and then go off a month and neglect its duties. The school or the office should be given up. For non-performance of duty a superintendent may be removed. A county superintendent in another state was voted a salary of $50. *He went to work*, and at the end of the year the county asked leave of the legislature to make his salary $1,500.

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

A STATE SCHOOL TAX.

No school measure yet untried in this state seems so likely to result in great good as a State School Tax. It would certainly prove most beneficent, if accompanied with other wise measures. It would constitute the Archimedean lever by which our whole school system would be elevated.

A chief obstacle in the way of school improvement and efficiency, is the single district system which has come to us from New England, through New York and Michigan. It is a poor system at the best, but especially so for our newer states, and is rendered doubly inefficient where, as in this state, the schools are supported mainly by local tax. For one district where enlightened and liberal measures prevail, there are five of an opposite character. Not only is little money raised and expended, but the chances are that it is not expended wisely, whether in the erection of school-houses, in the purchase of appliances needed, or in the employment of teachers.

It is but fair to say, however, that in the poorer and more sparsely settled parts of the state, the people, however enlightened, and however desirous to do so, cannot, as a rule, maintain good schools. They have not the means either to provide for a sufficient amount of schooling or to obtain good teachers. The distribution of the income of the school fund has but little effect in bettering this state of things. It does not in all cases—though the exceptions are rare—operate as a sufficient stimulus to keep the schools open for the required five months; and though nearly all districts now have this amount of schooling (and many would gladly have more), the small sum of money received from the state is not enough to make any appreciable difference in the quality of the school. This will be evident when it is remembered that the amount is now but little more than $26, on an average, for each district, and is likely to grow less as districts multiply and population increases. It is enough to eke out the summer school an additional month, and that is about all that can be said, except that it forms a slight bond of sympathy, a feeble pulse of life, between the heart and the extremities of the school system.

Now, if the schools were supported to an important extent by a State Tax, say to the amount of one-half the expense, the state might with reason claim the right to exercise a close supervision and a large measure of control over them. She could insist on a minimum, at least, of six months school; she could require that the school-houses be at least decent, and fairly furnished with all they need. With a moderate building fund at her disposal—and who will show us how this can best be created?—she could secure in the future a much better grade of school-houses than we now have. And if in connection with all this we could have the needed improvement in organization, the abolition of the single district incubus, there would be but one thing more wanting to make our schools what they ought to be. That one thing is indeed the vital and all important thing, but it is not unattainable: we mean a a supply of suitable teachers for all the schools. This can be brought about in time, if our Normal Schools system is held true to its legitimate purpose, and if the large and increasing income of its fund is not frittered away upon visionary projects and unwise expenditures.

Upon these collateral points much more might be said, but not now. All are essential parts of a complete whole, for the several parts or factors of a complete school system are: a sufficient and efficient money basis; a compact and efficient organization, such as admits of proper gradation and courses of study; effective supervision; suitable and well-appointed school-houses, including apparatue and text books; competent and more permanent teachers, and provision for the promotion of teachers and for their support when past labor. And last, but not least, wisdom and steadiness in the development and building up of the

system are essential, and this implies the avoidance of hasty and ill-considered changes or experiments.

The improvements suggested cannot all of them, or any one of them, be realized at a single bound; on the contrary, long and persistent labor is needed to bring them about. The earnest friends of education will do well to look into this matter of a state tax carefully, discuss it, and make it familiar to the people, and thus help forward the desire of the State Superintendent that it may receive an intelligent consideration at the hands of the next legislature.—P.

THE STATE UNIVERSITY.

The Catalogue of the University for the academic year 1875–76 is just issued. In typography, paper, and general fullness of information, it seems to leave nothing to be desired, while the elevation and ground-plans of the new "Science Hall," now in process of erection, add peculiar value and interest to this issue.

The University is now clearly in a most healthy and prosperous condition. The regular college classes are growing year by year; there is a marked tendency towards the more thorough and valuable courses, the present Freshman class having twenty-two in the Ancient Classical division; the people of the State are nearly everywhere manifesting towards it feelings of confidence and liberality never before shown; and, in a word, there is every reason why the State should be both proud and hopeful of this vigorous and rapidly-expanding head of its public school system.

The completion of "Science Hall" will enable the University to offer, at the beginning of the next academic year, advantages for scientific instruction inferior to none in the West. For such instruction none of our young men need thereafter go to Michigan, nor even to Harvard or Yale. The beautiful and magnificently equipped structure on the banks of our own lovely Mendota will meet every reasonable requirement. The already completed foundations and basement story of this building afford evidence of the solidity, massiveness and convenience of the finished Hall.

It will not be long before our own University will rival in all its appliances the justly successful and famous one of Michigan. In the pre-eminent natural beauty of its location it is already without a peer in America.

COURSES OF READING.

We find it, on reflection, quite impossible within the limits of an editorial to present anything like a useful "Course of Reading." The tastes and attainments of people so differ that a particular list of books would suit but few. We have thought best, instead of literally fulfilling the promise in our last issue, to recommend rather a single book, from which each may draw the information and advice best suited to his need. This is entitled "The Best Reading: Hints on the selection of books; on the formation of libraries, public and private; on courses of reading, etc., with a classified bibliography for easy reference." This volume of over 300 pages is published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, and can be procured from them by mail for $1.50, in cloth binding, or $1.00 in paper. It is exactly what every young person with an ambition for self-development ought to possess. To those also who purchase books for school or private libraries, it is invaluable.

Inclose to the publishers the trifling amount of its cost, and be happy evermore in its possession. Carefully read and re-read Part Second; become familiar with the titles of the books in other portions of the volume; and purchase from time to time such as inclination most strongly urges and means may permit. It is our best advice.

At the recent meeting of the Jefferson County Teachers' Association, Prof. J. Q. Emery was elected President for the ensuing year.

SPECIAL NOTICE.

Circumstances rendering it very inconvenient for the Board of Examiners to hold a supplementary examination for State Certificates the present month, it has been thought best to defer all further examinations until the usual annual session next summer. The unsuccessful candidates of last summer will please take notice.

SOME 'CAPITAL' LECTURERS.

As many cities and villages in the State are now arranging for lecture courses, we call attention to the fact that Madison has several men peculiarly qualified to combine instruction and interest on the platform. To secure lectures from these at such times as their ordinary professional duties may allow, and on such terms as will render their engagement easily possible to almost any village in the State, would be, to say the least, quite as wise as to pay extravagant prices for the "noted" professional lecturers, whose only peculiar attraction is, in most cases, merely their celebrity.

For the benefit of inquiring associations and lyceums, we propose to give the names of a few of the scholars and orators of the Capital City whose services we presume might be secured at reasonably convenient times and places. What we say is entirely without their knowledge and consent, but is believed to be within the limits of substantial accuracy.

President John Bascom, D. D., LL. D., of the State University, is a profound thinker and a vigorous and attractive speaker. His lectures before the Lowell Institute, in Boston, and his other books and writings, gave him a high reputation at the East, and, indeed, throughout the country, before he accepted his present position in our State.

Professor S. H. Carpenter, LL. D, of the State University, is a man of strong intellectual character, and qualified, by vigorous expression of his well-matured convictions, to deeply impress an intelligent audience. He is himself an excellent illustration of one of his lecture themes, "Successful Men."

Professor R. B. Anderson, of the University, whose recently published work on "Norse Mythology" is attracting much attention and favorable comment in literary circles, has, we believe, prepared two or three interesting lectures. His "America not Discovered by Columbus" has been given in Chicago and elsewhere.

Many other members of the numerous and able faculty of the University are qualified to attain fine success as public lecturers if time and inclination permitted.

Among the accomplished men of the city not to be classed as professional educators, but of fine literary and forensic ability, none rank higher than Professor James D. Butler, LL. D., who, though dedicating most of his time to recluse study, and happily removed by his fairly independent circumstances from the cares that wait on most us, yet continues to lecture, as for seventeen years past, when not called too far away. The continuance of his "missionary rates" shows that he lectures chiefly for the love of it, while his frequent detention in a place for a second talk shows that his audiences are influenced by the love of it too.

Among his themes are "Libraries as Leaven," delivered in May, 1875, at the opening of the Madison Free Library, the first in Wisconsin.

"Literary Ticklers, or Common-Place Books." How to arrange, retain and recall what you learn. A lecture already repeated more than a hundred times.

"Legendary Lore; Its Signatures on Nature."

Professor B. having spent three years in foreign travel, has various lectures on matters abroad, results of personal observation. Some of the subjects are as follows:

"Rambles Among Roman Ruins."

"The Architecture of St. Peter's, in Rome."

"Visits to Pompeii."

"Naples and Its Neighborhood."

"Alpine S rambles."

"A Yankee On and Up the Nile."

"A Looker-on in Madrid."

"Six Weeks in the Sandwich Islands."

"Jerusalem, as Seen by a Western Worldling."

Hon. Geo. B. Smith, the well-known, able, eloquent and witty lawyer of the Capital, occasionally finds time to deliver to large, interested and puzzled audiences his lecture on "How to Make Shakspeare out of Bacon."

Judge H. S. Orton, whose reputation for ability and eloquence is second to none in the city, has, we believe, occasionally been induced to appear before audiences in the role of a literary lecturer. His success has unquestionably been complete. It is only to be regretted that such men cannot find more time for the cultivation of intellectual fields outside of the one purely professional, and for that more popular use of their logically trained faculties, which might be of benefit outside of legal channels.

Rev. C. H. Richards, the pastor of the Congregational Church in Madison, is one of the most brilliant, scholarly and attractive speakers in the State. Any Lecture Association would be fortunate in securing him. We are not sure, however, that anything less than a pretty large "fee" would induce him to leave his important church work and his delightful home in the city to brave the slings and arrows of outrageous winter, seeking to fulfill lecture engagements.

The above does not by any means exhaust the list of possible lecturers in the Capital City, but they have exhausted our present space.

We have received a neatly printed "Fourth Annual Catalogue of the Rochester Seminary, for the Academic Year, 1875." It indicates the continued prosperity of the school. Rochester is a very pleasant little rural village, where intelligence and morality are largely in the ascendent, and hence just the sort of place for students. We have favorable recollections of a visit there last year in Institute time.

Mr. R. F. Pouley, B. S., is Principal of the school. "Horace Greeley" is there pursuing his studies.

The Los Angeles *Schoolmaster*, a weekly paper devoted to the educational interests of Southern California, is one of the brightest and most readable of our exchanges. This notwithstanding the fact that it is in some mysterious way a sort of missionary enterprise, 1,500 copies being distributed free to the patrons of the public schools of Los Angeles county. We have elsewhere quoted from it, but must give also the following from the spicy letter of a San Francisco correspondent respecting Prof. Carr, the State Superintendent elect of California, and well known in this State as a former professor in the University:

> I think the major portion of the fraternity, in the city as well as the State, are well satisfied with the choice of the people in the matter of State Superintendent. * * * * We all know Dr. Carr, you see. He is a good, whole-souled, conscientious old gentleman. He is a man of solid understanding (which it is said he wears number nines), and if you put your hands into his coat-tail pocket and expect to find there only hay-seed, you'll find yourself in the position of the man who squinted down the barrel of his shot-gun, thinking he hadn't loaded it—mistaken and blown up. There are two Carrs in the Doctor's family, and the better-half is known as a very worthy lady, who owns one of those inexhaustible bottle-sort of pens, from which drip honey and concentrated acid, each in its own good time. If this lady is not the Deputy elect, I'm no prophet in suggestions of this kind.

Gen. Di Cesnola has made another valuable discovery at Cyprus. In opening an old grave he found several articles of highly-wrought metal, among which were a golden scepter, a golden necklace of great beauty, and a pair of golden bracelets, with inscriptions in what appeared to be ancient Cyprian characters. These are to be added to the American collection.—*Exchange.*

La Crosse has thirty-one teachers in its four ward schools. The following gentlemen are the Principals: First ward, C. W. Roby; Second ward, B M. M. Reynolds; Third ward, J. J. Fruit; Fourth ward, J. P. Bird. Superadded to the Second Ward School are the High School departments, under the immediate charge of Prof. Reynolds.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

The drift towards compulsory school laws seems to be rapidly abating. A year ago the papers of this and other states were constantly advertising, either by allusion or by express recommendation, this "universal panacea" for the ills that ignorance is heir to. The state of New York, in particular, was the favored ground on which the friends of compulsion were about to win their greatest triumph. That great state, coming in the wake of New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Michigan, Texas, Nevada and California, seemed to be almost putting the seal of national approval upon this simple method of banishing illiteracy and its attendant brood of evils. That a compulsory law was to take effect Jan'y 1st, 1875, in that state, was heralded by the press of the entire country. Prepared in the light of the experience of the other states, it was supposed the law of New York was the most practicable yet enacted for the end sought, and that its enforcement would mark an era in educational legislation and history in this country.

Partly as the result of this action of the Empire State, and partly from the general popular impulse which had enacted compulsory laws in the other states above mentioned, the press of Wisconsin one year ago quite largely called for a similar enactment from the legislature about to convene.

What "sea change" has come over the minds of those who so recently were here the enthusiastic advocates of compulsory education? Why are their voices no longer heard in the land? Why is it that the following is absolutely the only paragraph respecting the subject that we have recently noticed in Wisconsin papers: "The compulsory education law does not seem to work as well in New York as was anticipated. The nine officers appointed to execute the law in the city draw salaries amounting to $14,000. Out of 15,000 children known in January to be truants, only 856 have been thus far compelled to attend school," etc.

The simple fact is that compulsory legislation is now substantially a proved and admitted failure in probably every state in which it has been tried. It will doubtless be one or two years yet before its friends will everywhere admit this as frankly as it is admitted in Michigan, where, as we last winter showed, compulsion has been tried under the most favorable circumstances. The evidence, however, is so rapidly accumulating that none but the blind will be much longer disposed to deny it. As the freshest specimen of this evidence that has fallen under our observation, we give the following from an editorial in a late number of the *Los Angeles Schoolmaster*, (Nov. 10th, 1875), showing that in California, as in Michigan, the failure is complete:

"The next legislature will undoubtedly repeal this law, which now stands as a dead letter on the statute books. The fact that it is a dead letter, and that it cannot be enforced in any part of the state, is a sufficient reason for its repeal.

"A few trustees posted the printed circulars sent to them by the State Superintendent, but we have not heard or read of a single instance in which the law has been carried out. * * *

"California with its large area and sparse population, is not ready for a compulsory law, even if it comes to us with the recommendation of the states in which it has been tried, under circumstances seemingly favorable for its enforcement. The law has disappointed the hopes of its friends wherever it has been adopted. Experience shows that parents will not comply with its requirements, and officers cannot be found who will enforce its penalties.

"The legislature will reflect the sentiments of the people by repealing a law so unsuited to the present condition of the state, and in such plain violation of the spirit of our free institutions."

Thus is supported by the experience of another state the somewhat elaborate argument in the last Wisconsin School Report seeking to prove that a general compulsory law, such as the states already mentioned have enacted, is unnecessary and un-American, and that the probabilities of its failure in every state where tried are overwhelming.

The Jefferson County Teachers' Association, at a meeting at Jefferson, Nov.

6th, passed resolutions endorsing the recently enacted High School Law, declaring the present system of county supervision "far superior to the old town system," and asserting "that the A, B, C method of teaching reading in the primary schools should be discarded." A resolution favoring the abolition of corporal punishment was lost.

CONVENTION OF SUPERINTENDENTS.

The State Superintendent has recently issued the following call for the usual annual Convention of County and City Superintendents. Besides the important questions for consideration indicated in the circular, there is another very strong reason why at the approaching meeting all sections of the State should be represented, namely: The necessity of taking immediate measures to secure a creditable representation of our educational condition and interests at the Centennial. This subject will receive special attention from the State Teachers' Association, and that the Superintendents should take part in the conference respecting it is in the highest degree important.

It will be observed that the sessions of the two meetings will alternate, as last year, thus affording opportunity for joint participation in discussion of questions of common interest.

Of course, Superintendents will be entitled to the reduced rates of travel and entertainment.

We hope, and have reason to think, that the approaching December meetings will be more largely attended than ever before. There are good reasons why they should be:

STATE OF WISCONSIN,
OFFICE SUP'T OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
MADISON, Nov. 29, 1875.

DEAR SIR:—A Convention of County and City Superintendents will be held at the Capitol, in Madison, on Wednesday and Thursday afternoons, Dec. 29 and 30, 1875, at which you are earnestly requested to be present. The following subjects will demand special consideration:

1. More Permanent and Effective Supervision.
2. A State School-tax.
3. A State Library System.
4. A Course of Study for District Schools.
5. Irregular attendance of Pupils.
6. Free Text-books.

The Semi-Annual Meeting of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association will be held at Madison, commencing on Tuesday evening, Dec. 26, and closing Thursday evening, Dec. 30. No sessions on the afternoons of Wednesday and Thursday, in order that teachers may attend the above meetings of the Superintendents. Subjects of unusual interest are to be considered by the Association. The programme will soon be issued by the proper officers. The occasion demands a large attendance at these December meetings. Come if possible and aid us with your counsel. If you cannot possibly attend, a brief essay (not exceeding two fool's-cap pages) on what you consider the most important of the above subjects, will be gladly received from you. Truly yours,

EDWARD SEARING,
Supt. of Public Instruction.

BUFFALO COUNTY.—Our unwearied correspondent, Mr. George Harper, sent us, sometime ago, a good report of the Fall Institute for this county, which enrolled the goodly number of 83, "by far the largest attendance" at any Institute in the county. It was conducted by Prof. ALBERT EARTHMAN, now of the River Falls Normal School, assisted by Supt. Kessinger. The report pays a high compliment to Prof. Earthman's skill and usefulness as an Institute conductor, which is endorsed by the teachers in attendance, through some spirited resolutions, in which they also express their sense of his fitness for his new position.

MARATHON COUNTY.—At the late Institute held in this county, a full report of which was sent us by E. Philbrook, Secretary, Supt. Greene requested the members of the Institute to "write one page, and show the benefit derived from public schools." That is a most profitable exercise for an Institute. There is nothing in which the bulk of teachers are more likely to be deficient, than in the art of expression and the ready use of the pen We are not sure but a short daily exercise of the same kind would be useful in every Institute.

Semi-Annual Meeting of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association at Madison, Dec. 28—30, 1875.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY EVENING, DEC. 28.

7.—Opening Exercises.

"Proper Distribution of Institutes."—J. B. Thayer.

Discussion of above paper.

Report of Com. on Free Text-Books.—E. B. Wood, G. M. Bowen, T. E. Williams.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, DEC. 29.

9.—Opening Exercises.

"A State System of Supervision."—Supt. Edward Searing.

General discussion of the same.

Reports of Committees:

"Functions of the Normal Schools."—W. H. Chandler, D. McGregor, O. Arey.

"Women as School Officers,"—W. E. Anderson, W. S. Johnson.

"Reorganization of the Association."—G. S. Albee, N. C. Twining, J. B. Thayer.

Business.

WEDNESDAY EVENING, DEC. 29.

7.—"The Need of Academies in Our Educational System."—A. O. Wright.

General discussion of the same.

Report of Committee on Teachers' Certificates."—A. F. North, J. F. Ellis, A. A. Spencer.

THURSDAY MORNING, DEC. 30.

9.—Opening Exercises.

"Orthoepy in Institutes."—Robert Graham.

Discussion of the same.

Reports of Committees:

"State School-tax."—James MacAlister, Edward Searing, A. F. North.

"School Libraries."—I. N. Stewart, J. H. Terry, R. L. Reed.

"University."—Edward Searing, Jas. MacAlister, J. McGregor.

"Functions of Common and Parochial Schools."—R. Graham, E. H. Sprague, G. M. Guernsey.

THURSDAY EVENING DEC. 30.

7.—Paper, "Provisions."—R. W. Burton

Report of Committee on "National Centennial."—G. S. Albee, O. Arey, H. C. Howland, James McGregor, E. H. Merrill.

Business.

HOTEL RATES.

Capital House, $1.00 $1.50 per day.

Park Hotel, $1.75 to $3.00 per day.

Vilas House, $2.00 per day; fires extra.

RAILROAD RATES.

The Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railway, the Chicago & Northwestern Railway, and the Milwaukee, Lake Shore & Western Railroads will return at one-third rates members who pay full fare coming. The Wisconsin Valley Railway will sell tickets at half-fare.

In order that all may attend the meetings of the Superintendents, Wednesday and Thursday afternoons, Dec. 29–30, there will be no session of the Association.

It is believed that the business of the meeting is of a character to demand the attention of progressive school men. A full attendance is solicited.

H. C. HOWLAND, President.
A. J. HUTTON, Secretary.
J. Q. EMERY, Ch'n Ex. Com.

DEC. 2, 1875.

PIERCE COUNTY.—Supt. Reed makes these among other suggestions to his teachers: Teach primary reading by the word method; give at least one-half hour daily to writing from copies on the board, the pupils using common paper, and each grade writing the same; give daily drill to all in mental arithmetic; teach geography to primary classes without books, beginning at home; let your work in history be the Revolutionary War, in view of the approaching centennial; teach grammar by requiring and using proper language at all times and in all places; teach the sounds and appropriate markings of all the letters of the alphabet; what you do, do thoroughly; ornament your school room with pictures; see that the maps are hung evenly; that your windows are curtained, if only with newspapers; that your wood is placed in a box; keep the stove tidy and free from accumulations of ashes; insist that the pupils clean their feet before entering the school room; look sharply to the condition of the out-houses. All these are essentials in the work of education.

THE *High School Journal*, published by students of the Milwaukee High School, is the last accession to the ranks of educational journalism. It is a neat-looking, well-edited semi-monthly of four pages, bearing the motto, "Gemmae in rudibus vestibus inveniuntur," suggested, as an editorial says, by the remarks of the State Superintendent to the pupils of the school at his recent visit thereto. The selection was not an unhappy one, so far as it refers to the school. We trust, however, its appropriateness will be only temporary. May the pearl (which is genuine) soon find an appropriate setting. Meantime, our best wishes to the *Journal* and its supporters.

THE TOWN SYSTEM.—A correspondent writes us;

I proposed to you, in a former letter, a modification of the Township School Law, viz: to retain one more member of the old board, and the two to hire teachers, with the approval of the Secretary of the Town Board. I would now propose to have the Town Board appoint a Town Superintendent to exercise all the duties of the Executive Committee, and to employ teachers with the consent of the District Board, they to form a kind of executive board for each sub-district. I think the transition from the old to the new system would be more easy, but it would be better to have it uniform than to have the present plan and but few towns adopt it. W. S. HUBBELL.

LA VALLE, Nov. 11, 1875.

IT should not be inferred that every article selected by an editor is approved, in all its utterances. That almost any article on an educational topic, if it has any pith or point to it, is likely to provoke somebody's criticism, "uttered or unexpressed," is merely an illustration of the chaotic condition of our educational ideas. Let discussion and criticism go on. In the course of time things will settle, and we can then bottle up some pure pedagogics. An article in the October number is criticised in this, and we have no doubt an article in this number, written by the redoubtable Gail Hamilton, will provoke criticism also, in many teachers' minds. We shall be glad if they are moved to speak out.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

SELECT POEMS OF OLIVER GOLDSMITH. Edited with notes by Wm. J. Rolfe, A. M., formerly Head Master of High School, Cambridge, Mass. Harper & Bros., New York.

The eighteenth century furnishes few names in English literature more deserving of remembrance than that of Goldsmith. The little book before us, which we suppose is more especially designed for classes in English literature, but is attractive to the private student, contains "The Traveler," "The Deserted Village," and "Retaliation." To these are prefixed Macauley's very readable sketch of the author's chequered life, and some other biographical notes. The text is illustrated by some very good engravings, and followed by scholarly notes. Goldsmith is not a poet of the highest order, but he is read with pleasure by many who soon tire of Milton. Mr. Rolfe's little volume must prove a delight to a bright minded and cultivated student, and cannot but excite a wish to find more of the gold of the past, and diminish that for the abounding tinsel of the present.

TABLES FOR THE DETERMINATION AND CLASSIFICATION OF MINERALS, by Prof. J. C. Foye, of Lawrence University. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. Price 75 cents, post paid.

Following Dana, our chief American authority, and gathering aid from various distinguished European writers, this brief manual aims to furnish the student with such help as is needed in order to determine and classify the minerals of the United States. Some useful hints as to apparatus, and suitable notes upon other matters, precede the tables. We are glad to see our Wisconsin colleges furnishing as well as using some of the needful apparatus of study and research.

THE SCHOOL HYMN AND TUNE BOOK, for Devotional Exercises. By J. D. Bartley, A. M., Principal of Burlington (Vt.) High School. A. S. Barnes & Co.

We find here a choice collection of suitable hymns, of a more devotional character, and a number suited to special occasions, with familiar and appropriate

tunes. Good taste and judgment have presided over the selection of both, and in the adaptation of the music to the words. We trust the book will be widely used.

AN ILLUSTRATED HISTORY OF WISCONSIN. By Chas. R. Tuttle, author of "Illustrated Histories of Indiana and Michigan," and of the "Border Wars of Two Centuries." Boston: B. B. Russell; Madison: B. B. Russell & Co. Sold only by canvassing agents.

This handsome volume of 800 pages has in it the elements of popularity. It will be eagerly bought and read by large numbers of the older residents of the state. It embraces several distinct features: First comes a general description of the state, its physical features, climate, etc.; and some account of the ancient earthworks found in various places. A chronological table is next given, extending from 1639 to 1848, which is followed by an account of the Indian tribes, now mostly gone.

The next prominent feature is the "Early History of Wisconsin," from the first French explorations and settlements till the organization of the Territorial Government, in 1836, describing the lead excitement, the Winnebago and Black Hawk Wars, with "Pioneer Recollections," and other matters of interest, and some account of the N. W. Territory. A graphic narrative follows, of the administrations of Dodge and Doty, and of old Territorial times.

The History of the state proper, through the administrations of our eleven Governors, from Dewey to Taylor, fills about one-half the book, and includes a quite full war record. In an appendix are given sketches of the several counties, and biographical notices of the "pioneer and prominent women" and "men" of Wisconsin. The volume is embellished with something more than one hundred portraits. We do not know the price at which it is sold, nor whether all the agencies have been given. Address Prof. Charles R. Tuttle, Madison, Wis. We understand the author is engaged on a new work.

HOLIDAY LOVE STORIES.—The charming little book entitled "Memories, a Story of German Love," published last year by Jansen, McClurg & Co., is supposed to have been a personal experience in the life of Max Muller, its reputed author. This year, they issue a companion volume, still more charming, namely, "Graziella, a Story of Italian Love," an episode in the life of Lamartine. It is a new translation, by J. B. Runnion, of the Chicago *Tribune*, and seems to be exceedingly well done. The pleasure in reading this affecting story is worth that given by a dozen novels. The volume is tastefully printed in red lines, on tinted paper, full gilt, uniform with the former one.

They also announce a delightful story by Mary Murdock Mason, called "Mae Madden," the scene of which is laid in Italy, though most of the characters are American. As a fascinating love story they present it to the public confident that it will win great favor. Joaquin Miller contributes a beautiful introductory poem, entitled a "Dream of Italy." The price of this book in 16 mo., red edges, is $1.25. For either book, address Jansen, McClurg & Co., 117—119, State Street, Chicago.

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LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE.—The December issue closes the sixteenth volume of this excellent magazine. The number

before us opens with a handsomely illustrated article on "Up the Thames," the second of a series on this interesting river, by Edward C. Bruce. "Sahara" is the suggestive title of another illustrated article, which at the present time is of peculiar interest, from the fact that different projects are now on foot for facilitating communication across the Great Desert, also for making it a sea. There are many other articles and stories, our space allowing only mention of two of them, "Miss Willard's Two Rings," by Sherwood Bonner, and Miss Lucy H. Hooper's "Housekeeping in Paris," the former a very striking story, the latter, as the title suggests, another of those pleasant articles from the pen of that graceful American correspondent, Miss Hooper. The January number will begin a new volume of this magazine, which we commend to our readers as one of the most attractive published. Single number, 35 cents. Liberal clubbing rates. Specimen number mailed on receipt of 20 cents. To a club of twenty subscribers, this magazine is put at $3 per year each, and Chambers Encyclopedia, the most complete and reliable work of general reference, illustrated, 10 vols., royal 8vo, bound in sheep, is presented to the person getting up the club. Address J. B. Lippincott & Co., Publishers, 715 and 717 Market St., Philadelphia.

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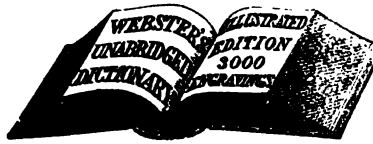

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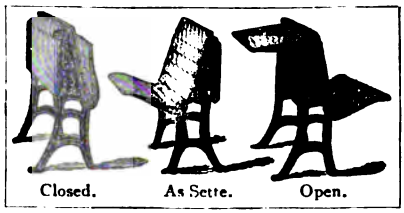

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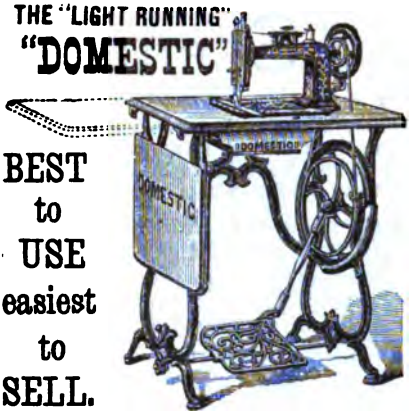

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